



# MYCOSES OF MAN AND ANIMALS



LONDON  
SIR ISAAC PITMAN & SONS LTD



## Foreword

At the time of his death in 1930 Dr Maurice Leclercq had been engaged in preparing a second edition of his admirable *Précis de Mycologie*. The completion of this work then devolved on his friend and former pupil Professor R. Vanbreuseghem. In the new edition published in 1932 the work was divided into three parts. The first on General Mycology represented the greater part of the original book and preserved its outstanding characteristics. Descriptions of technical procedures were collected together and formed the second part. The third part devoted to Medical Mycology was an entirely new feature contributed by Professor Vanbreuseghem which greatly enhanced the value of the book. This part which has been translated into English by Dr J. W. Wilkinson is the subject of the present publication.

The translation has been made literally and the subject is presented to the English reader without addition to or alteration of the original text.

THE SCHOOL OF HYGIENE      TROPICAL MEDICINE      JACQUES WILKINSON



## Preface

12077 H. VAN DER LINDEN. INTRODUCTION TO THE SECOND EDITION OF LANGEON. *Ann. d. Mycol.*

1 m mo p i t f n p o l  
T l e l q u o l p o s t  
T e r r (A m l m o )

When in July 1960 Miss Langeron and Dr Langeron finally entrusted me with the preparation of the second edition of the *Proc. et Mycologia*. I accepted with hesitation for fear of detracting from the value of my master work. I expected that at my disposal the manuscript to which Dr Langeron had told me he had devoted himself since the publication of the tenth edition of his *Proc. et Mycologia*. It proved however impossible to find the essential document. I had therefore to be content with what Miss Langeron was kind enough to hand over to me: an interleaved copy of the first edition of the *Proc. et Mycologia* together with numerous offprints or microfilms collected with a view to the second edition. This material together with what I personally possessed formed the basis of the book I am now privileged to present.

The first edition comprised eleven chapters. I have divided them into three sections: General Mycology, Technique and Medical Mycology. General Mycology is based essentially on the first edition but the distribution of the material has been considerably modified. Additions have been made to it from Dr Langeron's notes and from my own reading. The second part devoted to technique follows the plan previously adopted but has been supplemented by new procedures which have appeared since 1940. For the third part Medical Mycology I take full responsibility. This topic was in the first edition limited to Chapter IX, entitled "What does medical mycology amount to?" This title must be regarded as a very appropriate mean of rounding off the volume but at the same time it showed clearly Dr Langeron's intention to put the reader on guard against those who are always ready to create new mycoses on the strength of some mould isolated from refractory cases. Dr Langeron used to say to me: "When people don't know which way to turn [which saint to invoke] they think of fungi." I have completely replaced this ninth chapter by an entirely new third part in which the mycoses are studied in alphabetical order. It consists of seventeen chapters. I have endeavored to omit nothing essential even of the most recent work and I have wherever possible set out what is known of animal mycoses.

I feel that in this form the second edition would in no way run counter to the view of my late friend.

It may seem paradoxical to say that a scientific book owes more to many others than to its author. It is however true and particularly of the present volume which rests essentially on the work of Dr Langeron and on the experience of his long and fruitful career. Mme and Mlle Langeron have been extremely courteous in helping me gather the material necessary for this second edition and have greatly honoured me by entrusting me with the spiritual inheritance of one whom I knew well and so greatly admired.

Professor Edmond Sergent whom I met when he visited the Pasteur Institute in Algiers kindly undertook the introduction of the present work to French readers: a more eminent ambassador could scarcely be imagined and I owe him a great debt of gratitude.

The Institute of Tropical Medicine at Antwerp has put at my disposal its precious laboratories and its remarkable library. For this I am indebted to its distinguished Director Professor Dubois to whom I tender my warmest thanks.

The interest shown by the Institute of Scientific Research in Central Africa (I.R.S.A.C.) in numerous branches of science led it to trust me with the carrying out of investigations in the medical mycology of the Belgian Congo and to subsidize my research for several years. I particularly owe my thanks to M. le Ministre De Bruyne, President of I.R.S.A.C., Prof. J. Rodhain, President of the Commission of Human and Animal Pathology, Prof. L. Van Den Berghe, Director of I.R.S.A.C. in Africa, Prof. J. I. Harroy, General Secretary of I.P.S.A.C. and all the members of the Administrative Council.

Professors Gerard and Pennaux of the University of Brussels have given me their constant moral support and Prof. A. Dileq has given me much invaluable advice. I owe them my deepest gratitude.

My thanks are also due to Miss L. K. Georg (U.S.A.) and Dr M. Ferreira (Brazil) for the fine microphotograph they have allowed me to use.

Many doctors and public health inspectors in the Belgian Congo have helped me considerably by sending material. I am particularly indebted to Drs. Borgers, Kavit, Lejeune and Mathieu and to the Chief Inspector of Public Health M. Doorn. Mlle Van Hoof proved to be the most moderate of librarians and Mlle Van Rensel was a laboratory assistant and secretary, an indispensable daily help. My best thanks are due to all.

I am also infinitely grateful for the interest kindly shown to me in publishing this book and for their courtesy and attention always.

My wife who already had many claims on my affection has also required even more of it by helping me materially and morally throughout the preparation of this work.

If I were allowed to dedicate the book it would be to the memory of two remarkable men of science who both at different stages contributed to the development of my scientific career: Professor André C. G. and







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## CHAPTER I

# Mycoses caused by Actinomycetes

### Introduction

At first glance it would seem improper to use the term "actinomycosis" for diseases produced by members of the Actinomycetaceae, but this is no longer justifiable. In the first place, the designation actinomycosis traditionally refers to the disease cervicofacial actinomycosis, the disease is quite different from other mycoses caused by members of the Actinomycetaceae, except for certain mycetomas produced by actinomycetes. Again, the actinomycetes have been so confused with one another that their precise taxonomy has only recently been clarified by the work of Waksman and Henric (1943). In this the Nocardiose were considered to be distinct from the so-called true mycoses. Waksman's ignorance of certain fundamental characteristics of Actinomycetaceae, whether aerobic or anaerobic, acid fast or not, has invalidated much comparatively recent work. The separation of certain diseases included in this chapter (erythrasma, trichomycosis) from the true mycoses and nocardiosis is considered to be justified not only on clinical grounds, but also because of lack of information as to the real nature of their causal agent. As it might be made to refer to the very interesting anti-biotic properties of actinomycetes, for this subject the outstanding work of W. L. C. (1947) should be consulted.

Broadly speaking, the actinomycetes are microorganisms possessing either rudimentary mycelium or well developed one not exceeding one micron in diameter. The former comprise the family Micobacteriaceae with but one genus, *Mycobacterium*, the cyanobacteria. The latter with a true mycelium are nearer to the fungi. They comprise two families, the Actinomycetaceae which reproduce by mycelial fragmentation and are divided into two genera, *Actinomyces* and *Nocardia*, and the Streptomycetaceae which reproduce by conidia and comprise the two genera *Streptomyces* and *Microsporium*. *Actinomyces* and *Nocardia* will be dealt with in due course. The characters of the two genera *Streptomyces* and *Microsporium* may here be summarized to avoid repetition, these two genera are included in the family Streptomycetaceae by Waksman and Henric (1943) who distinguish them by the possession of vegetative mycelium which does not fragment into bacilli-form or cocciform elements and reproduces by means of spores.

Gen. *Streptomyces* Waksman and Henric 1943. *Streptomyces* species

are undoubtedly the most wide spread of all Actinomycete. According to Skinner, Frimmons and Tsuchiya (1948) they represent 30-50 per cent of the colonies obtained by spreading soil on agar but they are equally abundant in the atmosphere. Most of the work on Actinomycete is really concerned with *Streptomyces*. The care are aerobic non acid fast form the mycelium of which fragments but little and which reproduce by conidia arranged in short chains. The care are frequently of spiral form and the conidiophores ( sporophore ) are simple or branched. In the soil they convert nitrates to nitrites, break down proteins into simpler compounds and attack chitin and carbohydrates of a complex nature such as starch and cellulose. They are not pathogenic for man or animal but several species attack potato tubers (*Streptomyces* [*Actinomyces*] *scabiei*). The specific identification of *Streptomyces* is very difficult not only because the species characters have been poorly resolved but also because only a few species have been adequately described.

The formation of spore in short chains is one of the essential features of the genus. Unfortunately the appearance of the spore is not constant under all environmental conditions. Jones (1949) has shown recently that one fifth of the 1200 isolates made from different soil exhibited no constant morphology of the aerial mycelium and that after the first incubation 6 per cent of the isolates formed only vegetative mycelia, whence arises the possibility of confusion with the genus *Varanidia*.

Coret and Joubert (1951) have however isolated from a septum in actinomycetes of the domain actinomycete with all the characters of *Streptomyces* (*S. gillii*).

Genus *Micromonospora* (Erickson 1951) *Micromonospora* includes aerobic and non acid resistant actinomycetes with reproductive spores borne either singly upon the aerial mycelium or aggregated in masses. This is a very little known genus of which all the species are apparently saprophytic and may be isolated from soil, dung and decaying plant matter.

Wakaman and Henrici (1943) have tabulated the chief characteristics of the actinomycetes as follows—

# ORDER ACTINOMYCETES

## A Family Mycobacteriaceae Chester

Mycelium rudimentary or absent

Genus *Mycobacterium* Lehmann and Neumann

Acid fast or anisms

## B Families Actinomycetaceae and Streptomycetaceae

Forming a true mycelium

## I Family Actinomycetaceae Bauman

Veg. tativ. mycl. in fragment into ball form or spheruliform  
 kment

( ) Genus *Actinomyces* Harkn 1877

Aerobic or microaerophilic parasites (or saprophytic)  
 non-fast

(f) Genus *Nocardia* Thwaites 1899

Aerobic Gram positive acid fast or non-fast

## II Family Streptomycetaceae Waksman and Henric

Veg. tativ. mycl. not fragmenting into spheruliform or  
 spheruliform kment

( ) Genus *Streptomyces* Waksman and Henric 1941

Reproduction by conidia borne in small chains upon  
 filaments

(f) Genus *Micromonospora* (Link.) L.

Reproduction by terminal spores borne singly upon short  
 paraphores

## A. ACTINOMYCOSIS

## Definition

Actinomycosis is a chronic disease caused by *Actinomyces* species and is characterized by a granulation tissue which becomes and discharges through sinuses. The pus frequently includes sulphur yellow granules. The disease attacks man and cattle.

There appears to be general agreement on the designation of the disease but in the literature one occasionally comes across the name streptothricosis, nocardiosis or nocardiosis. This last term must be kept for disease caused by *Nocardia* species. The expression actinomycotic mycetoma has also been used by Langeron (1934) to designate all diseases caused by *Actinomyces* species which give a clinical picture of mycetoma and to distinguish them from maduromycotic mycetoma caused by hyphomycetes. Ignaz (1944) and also Spitt proposed the term Actinophytosis to designate all diseases in which one finds clubbed granules including the name of the microbe which causes them.

## Historical

The first case of human actinomycosis appears to have been described in 1876 by Lebert since when in 1876 Bollinger described the disease in cattle. Harkn in 1877 called the pathogen a *cent Actinomyces bovis* relying upon the origin and appearance of the parasite within the tissues but he did not obtain cultures. In 1890 Bolstrom isolated an aerobic strain which he considered to be *Actinomyces bovis* but which was obviously not the organism responsible for the classical actinomycosis.

In 1891 Wolff and Langeron isolated under anaerobic conditions of culture an *Actinomyces* which Langeron had previously isolated in 1884. Langeron in 1894 named this *Actinomyces visus*.

described by Urelov and bearing his name. This occurs as follows: after segmentation of the Actinomyces filaments the segments enlarge and repel one another by their ends so as to assume an angular configuration. The segmentation of the filaments is still very controversial and appears to be most clearly apparent in young colonies.

In tissues or exudates *Actinomyces israeli* takes the form either of branching Gram positive and non acid fast filaments or of sulphur yellow granules. These granules vary greatly in shape and dimensions. Frequently they are invisible to the naked eye but may sometimes be 1-2 mm in size. Their colour is traditionally described as sulphur yellow (sulphur granules of English and American writers) but many describe them as white or yellowish white. They are usually of soft consistency and may easily be crushed between cover slip and slide. Occasionally however hard and calcified granules are encountered. It is only too frequently stated that the colonies of *Actinomyces israeli* are visible to the naked eye: in general this is incorrect and a diagnosis of actinomycosis must not be rejected without a search for granules under the microscope. Moreover the presence of these granules is not absolutely necessary for diagnosis.

Actinomycosis granules freshly pressed out under the cover slip present on examination a polygonal or polycyclic appearance with in the centre a tangle of filaments which gradually open out towards the periphery where they present a what the French writers call *maïs* and the English clubs. These clubs are acid phobic. By using Gram staining method it can be demonstrated that the filament retain the gentian violet whilst the modified Ziehl procedure shows that they are not acid fast.

The clubs which envelop the actinomycosis granules are not a constant feature and are not indispensable for diagnosis of the disease. Granules both with and without clubs may indeed be found in the tissue. The origin of the clubs is still very debatable but they may well represent a reaction on the part of the organism organized toward the pathogenic effect of the *Actinomyces israeli*. Certain workers however have apparently seen the clubs in culture.

It should be borne in mind that these clubs may be produced by more than one organism other than *Actinomyces israeli* (e.g. by *Streptomyces*) and by *Actinobacillus lignieresii* and also by certain other streptomyces, such as *Sporodichium Phialophora* etc.

### Symptomatology

Actinomycosis may be localized in many sites, the most common being the cervicofacial, pulmonary and abdominal. Several other unusual forms have been described which are really due to Actinomycosis and which should not be included within the strict boundaries of the actinomycosis, the purely cutaneous form, the ocular and the form which is

### Cervicofacial Actinomycosis

This is the most frequent form and was found in 56.8 per cent of the series of cases studied by Cope (1938). The lesion usually first appears upon a swelling in the angle of the lower jaw. The skin over this swelling which soon becomes tough and woody is reddish violet in colour. The surface becomes irregular and soon exudes pus from several openings. In this pus occur the characteristic granules.

Often this is preceded by dental trouble such as extraction or a tonsilectomy.

The infection may extend to the pharynx and the orbit and there may be invasion of the salivary and lachrymal gland.

Diagnosis presents no difficulty.

### Pulmonary Actinomycosis

This is less frequent (— 3 per cent in Cope's series) and is seldom recognized before it has produced a fistular condition in the thoracic wall. In the absence of means of ascertaining its true diagnosis it most nearly simulates tuberculosis. Signs of discharging pleurisy may be evident before the infection makes its external appearance but in most cases it is the development of a cutaneous abscess quickly followed by fistularization which permits of diagnosis.

In the pulmonary form as well as in the abdominal form with which it may be confused there may be an emission of particles by way of the buccal cavity which enclose the actinomycete mass. However both the pulmonary and the thoracic form may be derived one from the other and the pulmonary may frequently complicate the abdominal form.

Can *Actinomycetes* be isolated from bronchial secretions in the absence of actinomycosis? This appears to have been confirmed in a recent and very interesting investigation by Kay (1949). This worker has searched systematically for *Actinomycetes* in patients with bronchiectatic chronic abscesses and suppuration extending from the lung and has isolated it in 50 per cent of the cases. The secretions were first obtained by bronchoscopy or from operative fragment. In one quarter of the positive cases actinomycotic granules were found. It is acknowledged that the presence of *Actinomycetes* without necessarily producing the disease complicates it and may lead to true actinomycosis with a characteristic development of sinuses.

### Abdominal Actinomycosis

This would appear to be caused by the disintegration of particles containing *Actinomycetes* or to result from an extension of the pulmonary form.

This form (15 per cent of Cope's 1330 cases) is scarcely ever diagnosed before a laparotomy or an autopsy. The most frequent clinical indication is pain resembling that of appendicitis in the lower right region of the abdomen. Palpation reveals a soft lump in the ileocecal region. In the



absence of operation the infection may extend towards the muscle of the anterior abdominal wall and become fatal or it may get to the vertebral column attacking the vertebra and causing nervous troubles. A good many cases of *parametritis actinomycetosa* have been described and amongst the various explanations Stringer (1940) has pointed out the possibility of infection by an external route (repeated digital dilatation of the vulva).

### Histopathology

For a specific histopathological diagnosis a tinomycetous granuloma must be shown to be present in the tissues. Without these the picture is insufficiently complete to permit of diagnostic conclusion. The exceptional presence of delicate solitary filament might incline the observer towards a diagnosis of actinomycosis. Stained with corn haematoxylin the granules would show a deeper central region and a reddish periphery since the clubs have a special affinity for eosin.

The granules make up the centre of a granulomatous tissue where white globules, giant cells and eosinophiles are found. Polymorphonuclear cells the disintegration of which lead according to certain workers to the formation of clubs are most directly in contact with the granule.

Following up previous deductions there may be found a copious suppuration or an internal sequestrum in either case in the absence of the typical granules a diagnosis of actinomycosis would not be warranted.

The use of Gram's staining procedure upon histological sections will differentiate any Gram positive filaments in the granule. If the granuloma should be caused by *Actinobacillus lignieres* the bacilliform elements within the granule are Gram positive. Should the granule be produced by a streptothrix the form of the latter bacilli is recognized.

### Treatment

Although certain claims have been made for the treatment of tinomycosis by potassium iodide administered orally (3 drops of a saturated solution 3 times daily increased by 1 drop per day up to 20 drops 3 times daily) or sodium iodide intravenously (1 g. p. l.) progress has been considerably modified by the introduction of sulphamide and penicillin.

Surgery is of some value in the case of irregular abscesses (pulmonary, abdominal, skin, appendicular and bone) and in particular the latter in certain inflammatory conditions. Thus 1 m. b. Lauer (1943) for erysipelatous actinomycosis administered 140 r for two weeks daily up to a total dose of 1,400-2,000 r at a distance 30 cm with a 6 mm aluminium filter and a minimum 0.5 mm pyrex filter for kilovoltage 120-140.

The sulphamide preferably sulphadiazine may be administered for 6 months maintaining a level of 10 mg per cent in the blood which the active dose is not well established being about 10 mg per cent. In practice there is a tendency to combine penicillin and sulphamide.

### Prognosis

The prognosis of actinomycosis is best in the purely cutaneous forms and good in the cervicofacial form. It is frankly bad in the pulmonary and abdominal forms.

On the whole what is known of the prognosis of actinomycosis has emerged from results obtained before the era of sulphamid and penicillin therapy and will doubtless be revised.

### Differential Diagnosis

Only the cervicofacial form of actinomycosis presents a clinical picture which can be recognized. This is not to say, however, that its diagnosis must be resolved solely on a clinical basis. It is to be expected that the course of such chronic evolution and polymorphic symptomatology of actinomycosis must inevitably be confused with the most varied diseases from which abscess complementing an abdominal form and simulating a hepatic metastasis to pulmonary tuberculosis or cerebral tumour.

### Mycological Diagnosis

This depends upon (i) the examination of actinomycosis granules in the pus and (ii) the isolation of *A. israeli* in culture. The first pathological diagnosis is less relevant for actinomycosis than for other deeply seated mycoses for it may often be replaced by careful examination of the granules in the pus.

#### 1. Examination of Granules in the Pus

Pus may be obtained from the sinus, diluted with physiological saline and examined in a petri dish placed against a dark background or filtered on gauze. As already mentioned granules are not always visible to the naked eye and they occasionally attain a size of 1 mm. but never more than 2 mm. They should be carefully examined with a hand lens or whilst in the petri dish under the binocular microscope.

Conant *et al.* (1949) recommend the application on the sinuses of dry sterile gauze from the meshes of which granules may be obtained the morning after the application.

The granules are small masses of irregular shape, whitish or yellowish soft and exceptionally elastic.

#### 2. Culture of *Actinomyces israeli*

Cultures of *A. israeli* are difficult to obtain because the parasite is anaerobic or microaerophilous and though it may be easily grown and isolated as an anaerobe in pure culture or from pathological products which only contain anaerobes, the isolation is much more difficult from contaminated sources. Further *A. israeli* is a delicate organism and vaccination from the nutritional point of view. Lastly this parasite can only with difficulty be maintained in the laboratory; it requires frequent subculture and even so the cultures eventually die. Most workers seem unable to

maintain their strains for more than 3-4 months. However according to Rosebury (1944) if the strains die out in spite of persistent attempts to maintain them upon a given medium they may be perpetuated easily by transplantation upon different media as in a rotation.

Several media are suitable for the culture of *A. israeli* for example nutrient agar with the addition of 1 per cent glucose, Dorsett medium or glycerine egg medium, nutrient broth and a medium which has given Rosebury the best results namely Difco's Bacto brain infusion added to 2 per cent agar. This culture medium which has the advantage of a relatively stable composition may also be improved in any laboratory.

*A. israeli* varies from strain to strain and from one day to another in its tolerance for oxygen but for satisfactory results it must always be cultured under conditions of partial or total anaerobiosis.

The easiest method of ensuring partial anaerobiosis is to introduce the material for culture into the bottom of a tube of nutrient broth or nutrient agar to which has been added 1 per cent glucose or Bacto brain infusion in 2 per cent agar kept at the bottom of the test tube liquid on the water bath and inoculated after cooling but before solidification of the agar (shake cultures). The actinomyces granules collected under as sterile conditions as possible and washed in several cubic centimetres of physiological saline is placed in a first tube and crushed against the side of the tube which is shaken to ensure the even distribution of the granule fragments in the bulk of the liquid agar. After this portion of the agar is transferred to a second tube and this is repeated to the extent of five or six tubes with the object of getting well isolated colonies.

The tubes are kept at 37°C and after 3 or 6 days are examined with a view to microscopical study of the colonies and further transplantation. The broth cultures lend themselves well for microscopical examination but on account of frequent contamination are of little use as a source of pure colonies. On the other hand agar cultures show well isolated colonies developed a little below the surface. Good examples have a particularly abundant accumulation of colonies 1 cm below the surface. By means of a Pasteur pipette a white colony is withdrawn having a surface seen by several binocular lenses set at various angles (Crittenden) and a film is smeared out for staining by Gram's method for the recognition of interbranching Gram positive filaments or of coccilli-form elements exhibiting the angular growth of Cieslak. One or more colonies should be similarly withdrawn for transplantation.

If the inoculum is obviously very contaminated or if it is impossible to isolate the granules the procedure recommended by Rosebury (1944) is advised. The Bacto brainheart infusion added to 2 per cent agar is introduced into petri dishes then 1 ml of sterile broth is poured over the surface of the agar in each dish for 1 hour exposure. The material to be cultured is streaked into each of the petri dishes with

richary as the plating medium. The petri dishes are then placed at 37 C. in a glass vessel enclosing 5 per cent CO<sub>2</sub> and hydrogen catalysed by warming over platinum or palladium. After 4 to 6 days those colonies are first removed which are white, firm and deeply set in the culture medium (type R) followed by the soft and friable ones (type S). According to Rosebury the colonies are nearly all type R when first isolated and progressively changing to type S by subculturing. These occur at lower levels of the plate.

Special care is needed with colonies which naturally anaerobic or microaerophilous have adapted themselves to free air and seem able to maintain themselves there for they are likely without warning to require a return to non-aerated medium from time to time.

The optimum temperature for the development of *A. israel* is 37 C. At 22 C it will not grow. Warming for 10 minutes to 60-70 will kill it. It will survive for 1 hour at 60 C. The optimum pH is 7-7.8.

Sugar is not fermented with gas production but the action of *A. israel* on several sugars (glucose, lactose, maltose, mannose, sucrose) results in acidification of the medium. The proteolytic action of the cultures, indole formation and reduction of nitrite to nitrites are variable. It is probably the same with haemolytic action so that the erection of new species based on the characters is clearly unjustifiable. Transfer of colonies should be carried out every 2 weeks but they can be kept alive for a month by refrigeration which is best carried out on dextrose agar.

### Immunity Reaction

So far no known work carried out upon the cutaneous sensitivity of actinomycotic patient and the presence of antibody in the blood has been performed with *A. israel* strain of *Actinomyces*. They have therefore no influence in relation to disease caused by *A. israel*.

### Experimental Inoculation

Despite many attempts no one has yet succeeded in reproducing the characteristic lesions of actinomycosis by injecting *Actinomyces israelii* into animals.

Crootten (1934) by surgical introduction of fragments of Villon agar bearing colonies of *A. israel* into the abdomen of rabbit has noted the appearance of clubbed granules.

Emmons (1938) using strains of *A. bovis* (*israel*) of human or bovine origin failed completely. However by repeating inoculation intramuscularly in the gluteal region Emmons has been able to produce abscesses which lasted longer than in newly treated animals. From the pus he recovered actinomycotic granules devoid of club.

Rosebury, Epps and Clark (1944) summarized their results as follows: repeated inoculation with pure cultures of 9 strains of *A. israel* aseptically injected into 4 guinea pigs and 16 rabbits have mostly yielded negative

results. However an experimental actinomycosis was obtained in animals, evolutive and mortal in guinea pigs and one rabbit localized and benign in other rabbits. Intravenous or intraperitoneal injections repeated with large amounts of *Actinomyces* appeared to be quite ineffective whereas single or repeated subcutaneous injections merely produced slow lesions from which the parasite could only rarely be isolated again. Fatal reactions were sometimes observed after intrapharyngeal injections or together with an inoculum of ground and sterilized calcareous calculus. Intracutaneous injections of living or sterile cultures in rabbits already inoculated and — not so treated revealed quite clearly that an allergic condition is associated with a progressive infection. Altogether the results obtained agree with the view that actinomycosis is an endogenous infection but show that the essential factor in the pathogenesis of this disease are as yet unknown.

It is well to remember that the method of acidification of sputum as used in connexion with the inoculation of tubercular sputum in the guinea pig destroy *Actinomyces israeli*.

### Actinomycosis in Animals

Actinomycosis is known in a great many animals both wild and domesticated. It has been noted especially frequently in cattle in certain regions. In the United States according to Skinner, Fimmons and Tschuy (1919) actinomycosis is much more frequently found in abattoirs of the Middle West than in those of the South or the East but the difference thus attribute to the poorer systematic study of the disease in certain regions. The animals perhaps become contaminated with one another through the intermediate agency of fodder.

As already indicated only a proportion of the symptoms of actinomycosis in cattle can be attributed to *A. israeli* — a great many are in fact caused by *Actinobacillus lignieres*.

Baudet (1934) produced an excellent study of the parasite causing actinomycosis in the dog better known as streptothricosis in dog. The pathogenic agent is near to or identical with *A. israeli* and Baudet has suggested the name (*Chlorostreptothrix canis*) for it.

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The first case of nocardiosis was described in 1891 by Ippolito, who found and isolated an aerobic *Actinomyces*. Cramp positive and seen in cerebral abscesses and meningeal exudates. Since then a number of cases (less than 100) have been described usually under the name actinomycosis. Most cases were diagnosed at autopsy. The starting point is a pulmonary disease characterized by multiple abscesses. Pulmonary lesions are frequently complicated by cerebral, bone, subcutaneous abscesses. According to Kirby and McNaught, out of 28 cases the lungs were involved in 23 and in 10 there was cerebral metastasis. The abscesses were deeply seated as in the patient of Binford and (1945) or they were situated in the ischio rectal fossa.

Prognosis is very poor and the issue usually fatal (24 of the 28 cases Kirby and McNaught). Further therapeutic measures were lacking very recently, however the introduction of sulphamides without a having given any striking result, undoubtedly on account of generally being used too late, promise better for the future.

In pus and sputum *N. asteroides* composed of branching filamentous bacilli, Cramp positive element. It does not form granules. The filaments and bacilli form components are equally acid fast as demonstrated by the use of a modified Ziehl-Neelsen technique. In fact it is useless to employ an acid alcohol solution to demonstrate this fast property for the filaments and bacilli decolorize. Calkworthy (1943) recommends that after staining with warm carbol fuchsin for five minutes destaining should be carried out with a 5 per cent sulphuric acid solution for a limited period. The filamentous forms in sputum withstand destaining not longer than 5 minutes while in culture the filamentous form for 60 seconds and the bacilli form and cocciform element do not resist destaining beyond 10 minutes. All the same Drake and Henrici (1943) insist upon destaining with sulphuric acid alone, i.e. lacking also the confusion of bacilli form element with Koch's bacillus is possible.

*Nocardia asteroides* may easily be cultured upon any medium suitable for aerobes at 37°C and at laboratory temperatures. Development however slow and several weeks are needed for the production of colonies. On agar the smooth colonies are soft humid granular, cerebriform and their colour progresses from yellow through orange to red. On Oxoid's medium where pigment develops most readily the colour is yellow or deep orange.

Experimental inoculation in the rabbit demonstrates the sensitivity to intravenous injection of *N. asteroides*. The animal dies after a variable period usually rather short (1 day for Drake and Henrici [1943], 48 hours for Binford and Lane [1945], 23 days for Birch [1946] and Roux [1948]) exhibiting multiple abscesses of diameter 3 mm in organs. Subcutaneous or intramuscular injections in the rabbit or guinea pig ends in localized abscess formation at the inoculation site, which heal after suppuration. Peritoneal injection in the rabbit is profitable without result whereas in the guinea pig it is still fatal without

According to Conant and Rowbury (1948) *A. asterode* is the only *Yersinia* species pathogenic for laboratory animals.

Drake and Henrich (1949) prepared an asteroderm by evaporating broth cultures of *V. aeroviride* killed by warming to one tenth of their volume. They also studied the irritant and the allergic reactions caused by intratricular inoculation of suspensions of *V. aeroviride* in oil. After 90 days the animals showed a strong cutaneous reaction to an injection of crude unwarmed extract the reaction was localized within the proteinaceous component of this extract. There is no cross reaction with Koch's cells.

There is no cross reaction with boehmite gill.

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Chalmers and O Farrel (1913) *Nocardia tenuis* Castellani 1911 has the following synonyms—

*Discomyces tenuis* Castellani 1911

*Cohnistrepthothrix tenuis* Ota 1924

*Actinomyces tenuis* Dodge 1925

Porcelli (1911) is credited with the rather difficult achievement of obtaining cultures of *N. tenuis*. It is now very clear that Macfie obtained cultures at Accra before the Italian worker by the following method: scrapings from infected hairs are soaked in absolute alcohol before being transferred to aseptic agar. After incubation for several days at 37°C small transparent colony composed of fine and elongated radiated filaments appears on the surface of the agar. The colony grows slowly and remains translucent and almost invisible. Subculture upon a sterile agar grows more quickly—within 4 hours—but never any larger. Only the central regions of the colonies become opaque and resemble ground glass. The strain is easily maintained upon aseptic agar; all attempts to culture *N. tenuis* upon ordinary agar have failed. The non-acid fast filament is either Gram positive or negative in the young culture but becomes more strongly Gram positive in older ones.

*Micrococcus nigrescens* which accompanies *N. tenuis* in the black form of the disease has been cultured by Castellani (1911) whilst Chalmers and O Farrel in 1913 isolated *M. castellani*.

*N. tenuis* cannot be inoculated into human hair in situ.

Trichomycosis shows a marked preference for attacking hair in the axillary regions but instances have been recorded of hair of the pubic and inguino-scrotal regions having been attacked (Chalmers and O Farrel). The black and red varieties are almost entirely tropical. However Castellani and Wilkinson (1923) have described some cases of this disease in England. Different varieties may be encountered on the same person. The incubation period is unknown but is probably at least two weeks.

Hair attacked by leprothrix exhibits either a pitted nodules or a thick and irregular sheath. Microscopical examination shows the nodules or sheaths to be composed of very fine filament often reduced to clubform or cocciform element which push aside the hair cuticle and dislodge beneath it leaving the hair itself intact. According to Porcelli the entire hair is penetrated by *N. tenuis* but it may well be that this is a section rent upon the study of poor preparation. In the black and red forms are found large black or red coccibodies besides the filament of *N. t.*

Macfie (1916) discovered that besides the three principal forms there is a fourth brown form (*var. fusca*) which he described rather inadequately and from which he isolated a diplococcus associated with *N. t.* Again Ping Ting Huang (1933) isolated from cases of leprothrix in Japan an *Actinomyces sensu lato* with black cultures completely different from those of *N. tenuis*.

Those subject to trichomycosis often have axillary hyperhidrosis. It



and hardly even accompanied by an itch the erythrasma patches may when there is much loss of moisture produced by physical exercise or fever project and become slightly sore. They never develop vesicles. Erythrasma is mostly confined to the inguinal fold more rarely the axillary fold and occasionally the submammary fold. In man it is especially found in the lower part of the left inguinal fold contact with the scrotal skin apparently favouring its development. It is a disease of adults very common in men much less so in women and exceptional in children. Gougerot considers that erythrasma attack practically all men at some time or other. On the other hand American authorities consider the disease to be much less frequent in the United States than in Europe. It is not in evidence in the native Africans but it is very common amongst Europeans living in the tropics.

From the clinical point of view diagnosis is rather easy but erythrasma must be carefully distinguished from the epidermomyces especially *Hebra's eczema marginatum* and from *Pityriasis versicolor*. When the scales of the inguinal or axillary regions fail to show branching and relatively large segmented filaments characteristic of dermatophyte erythrasma may be borne in mind. The organism may be investigated by direct examination of the scales in chloral lactophenol or scales detached in ether may be stained well in methylene blue and attached to a slide by collodion dissolved in a solution comprising parts absolute alcohol to 1 part ether. Observation must be carried out under oil immersion objectives for the organism is too minute for dry objectives. It may present the appearance of short branching filaments of 1  $\mu$  maximum width or else of cocciform or bacilliform elements. Attempts at culture on Sabouraud's medium always give negative result.

Histologically erythrasma is characterized by slight hyperkeratosis and by minimum infiltration into the dermis.

Treatment of erythrasma is usually considered to be easy but we do not hold this opinion. Alleviation of symptoms is easily accomplished after the erythrasma has been irritated by perspiration and the friction accompanying the application of moist powders or 10 per cent boracic talc. The use twice daily of 1 per cent iodized alcohol comprises moistened with a 20 per cent solution of sodium hypsulphite (chrysarobol) or vgnolin may bring about a desquamation and apparent cure. But in most cases a more or less rapid relapse in the presumption of cure is usually premature for the patient will not stick on the treatment of erythrasma which can continue to annoy.

## CHAPTER II

### *Aspergillosis*

THE AM *Aspergillus* is not known to be a pathogenic fungus for man and animals. The most commonly isolated species is *A. pergillii* (*A. niger*). *Aspergillosis* is a well known disease of birds in captivity, especially aquatic species such as penguins. The question whether there is such a disease as human *aspergillosis* is a very controversial one, though every rare form of the disease in human may exist.

The *A. pergillii* comprises about 100 species forming a very widely distributed group of *Ascomycetes* which live in the soil and upon organic materials. Together with *A. niger* and *Mucor* species they are the most frequent contaminants of laboratories. Since spores are everywhere and are exposed to the atmosphere it is to be expected that *A. pergillii* spores should appear upon them in abundance and if one were not wary of the danger fungus one might feel justified in establishing a causality relation between a lesion which might appear and the fungus isolated from it. Therefore conclusions find too easy support in certain laboratory tests of lesions such, for example, the greenish phase of certain onychomycosis attributed to *Aspergillus*. The correct conclusion is probably very different. *Aspergillus* are incapable of attacking a healthy nail but they are well able to develop in the breakdown product of nail attacked by a dermatophyte. The ease with which *A. pergillii* species grow in culture and their inhibitory power over many organisms result in the isolation of a saprophytic *A. pergillii* from the nail culture instead of the parasitic dermatophyte. This is no mere speculation for *Aspergillus* cannot attack keratin of our skin nutritive material for dermatophytes. Moreover cases of so called mixed infections of nail by an *Aspergillus* and a dermatophyte have been noted. Bereton and Warr, (1946) reporting 13 cases of onychomycosis by *A. pergillii* indicated that in one case the infection was caused by an *A. pergillii* and *Trichophyton rubrum*. Without doubt the finger nails first attacked by *T. rubrum* were ultimately infected by the *A. pergillii*. Another fact in support of those who favour *aspergillosis* is that injection of *A. pergillii* spores into laboratory animal life brings about a rapidly fatal condition. Even after eliminating those cases in which death of an animal is brought about by the injection of large doses of *A. pergillii* spores, there still remains the undoubted pathogenicity for a large number of *Aspergillus* for laboratory animals.

In human pathology it is not very often the first thing to be seen

aspergillous diseases as eminently suspect and only to admit them with reluctance after all other possible causes have been eliminated. From the clinical uses of aspergillosis in pigeon fanciers and wig makers it does not seem to be as convincing as formerly. In many pulmonary ailments *Aspergilli* and yeasts are secondary agents of infection to which are too often attributed a pathogenic power which they no longer possess. Conant *et al* (1941, p. 196) commenting upon the case of meningitis aspergillous reported by Finch (1939) and also that of Jett (1941) concerning a cerebral abscess due to *Aspergillus* wrote: "In both cases mycelial filaments were present in the lesions and the diagnosis of aspergillosis was extremely probable but it was not demonstrated."

If in man the diagnosis of aspergillosis must be suspect in the majority of cases this is not so for animals and especially birds in captivity. These especially sea birds, as a very heavy toll and every year many specimens are lost from the world zoological gardens on account of aspergillosis. Ainsworth and Rewell recently (1949) considered this question in an interesting article based upon their observations in the Zoological Gardens at Leventna Park, London. Aspergillosis in birds is eminently a disease of the respiratory system. The air sacs especially the anterior thoracic are the most frequently involved then come the lungs. In only three of the 18 cases described by Ainsworth and Rewell the ill luminal viscera were attacked.

The lesions are nodular, present in the air sacs or granuloma which invade the lungs. Aspergillosis also can affect birds in captivity but in some cases death so swift follows capture of the bird that the pre-existence of the infection must be admitted. Opinion as to the etiology of aspergillosis is divided between two groups, one maintaining that aspergillosis is endemic among wild birds and that captivity brings it to a head, the other that aspergillosis is a consequence of captivity to which certain particularly susceptible wild birds fall victim.

Whichever view be correct the disease cannot be treated once it is started and death soon supervenes. No effective therapeutic measures are known.

Identification of *Aspergillus* species is difficult. Thom and Langer (1941) should be consulted on this subject.

Note: One must also exercise the greatest caution in accepting the results of insect analyses. *Penicillium Mucor* and *Trichosporon* are respectively referred to as *Penicillium Mucor* and *Trichosporon* (cf. Conant *et al* 1941). The confusion arises from the fact that frequent laboratory contaminants that grow on bird specimens are attached to their isolation in culture. The true pathogenic fungus produces a clear precipitate seldom at first, mycetozoa, whilst the false pathogenic fungus has no proper symptomatic value.

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## North American Blastomycosis or Gilchrist's Disease

### Definition

North American blastomycosis or Gilchrist disease is a mycosis caused by *Blastomyces dermatitidis* Gilchrist and Stokes 1895 characterized by warty cutaneous lesions and lesions of more deeply seated organs with a predominance of pulmonary lesions.

The designation blastomycosis is somewhat unfortunate first suggesting the implication that the causal agent is a yeast since the fungus involved exhibits a yeast like morphology in certain stages of its development whether parasitic or cultural. Further it leads to confusion with so called European blastomycosis known also as cryptococcosis or torulosis caused by a true yeast *Torulopsis neoformans*. The eponym Gilchrist disease is preferable and pays tribute to the worker whom in 1894 described the first known case.

It is noteworthy that in the United States the disease has often been referred to as Chicago disease (though this tendency is diminishing) because of the large number of cases originally from Chicago. The impression may sometimes have been gained that Chicago disease was of different origin than Gilchrist's disease but this is not actually the case.

### Historical

In 1896 Gilchrist published his account of the case of dermatitis by a blastomycete which he had observed in 1894. In 1895 with Stokes he described a further case of this disease under the name of a case of common pseudo lupus and produced with his dilator a description of the parasite. The first description of this parasite must thus be attributed to these two authors whatever the name that it may ultimately receive and whatever the systematic position to which it may eventually be assigned.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

Gilchrist disease is a comparatively rare malady of which some fifty cases have been described but only a hundred of these are unquestionably due to *B. dermatitidis*. In 1939 Martin and Smith showed that of 34 published cases only 90 (about 25 per cent) were authentic instances of

Gilchrist disease. It is a disease of old age found especially in poor farming populations. Men are more frequently attacked than women in the proportion of about 10 to 1 (statistically given as 8 to 1 or 9 to 1). All races are susceptible, black race has sometimes been thought to be less sensitive than white but this is doubtful.

The geographical distribution of Gilchrist disease is strictly limited to the United States of America especially the Mississippi Valley. California and Illinois I already noted its frequent occurrence in the Chicago area has led to the name Chicago disease.

Apart from the United States certain cases have been recorded in England and Canada. Starrs and Kloetz (1949) in a recent analysis of Canadian cases have however noted that practically none of the cases reported for Canada could be established without doubt as Gilchrist disease and further their personal contribution of a new case is in view since no culture of the parasite could be made. In 1916 Brody reported an undoubted case (histopathology and culture) of North American blastomycosis which unexpectedly appeared upon an American soldier during his stay in France. The writer rejected the possibility of the disease having been contracted in America or England since the generally accepted incubation period (1 week to 4 months) was much shorter than the time which had elapsed before the appearance of the symptoms (26 months) in that particular case. According to Brody there remained the possibility of importation from a patient sent from the United States.

Numerous cases of histomycosis have been observed in many countries besides America. They are usually accompanied by mycological examination and the reports too incomplete to permit of classification and it seems appropriate to conclude that Gilchrist disease is almost entirely a lowland disease of the United States.

### Ecology

There is yet no precise knowledge of the exact origin of the pathogenic fungus and although certain writers have considered themselves capable of reporting that *B. dermatitidis* is widespread in nature this is difficult to prove. In 1914 Stober isolated from rotten wood found in the drainage of one of his patients sufficient fungus to cause a mould similar to *B. dermatitidis* from which he prepared a vaccine to which a patient reacted. I think of a greater interest are the observations of DeLamater (1948) that the greater interest are the observations of DeLamater (1948) that the patient with prostate trouble considered that urine may be a source of contamination of the soil. Following this up he inoculated sterilized soil with cultures of various strains of *B. dermatitidis* and obtained good growth of the mycelial form of the fungus. Unfortunately so far as we know the results obtained by this worker have been reported only in a very short note published on the occasion of a reunion one would wish for more detail.



Instance of contagion between man and man or dog and man has been noted but they are exceptional.

### Pathogenic Agent

At the present time it seems unnecessary to attribute Cirkhitch's disease to any agent other than *Blasatomyces dermatitidis* Culchrest and Stokes 1899. However many attempts have been made to distinguish different species or varieties from amongst the isolated strains but it may well be that the various morphological forms are only variations of the same species. On the other hand although most authorities agree upon retaining for the fungus in question the name which was given by those who first studied it many synonyms are to be found in the literature of which the following are the commonest—

<i>Oidium dermatitidis</i> Rickett 1901	<i>Endomyces capillaris</i> Dodge and Avery 1920
<i>Cryptococcus gilchristi</i> Vuillemin 1901	<i>Coccidium dermatitidis</i> Bagal 1931
<i>Zymosema gilchristi</i> Beurnann and Cougerot 1900	<i>Mycosporium</i> Line Agosti 1932
<i>Cryptococcus dermatitidis</i> Brumpt 1910	<i>Cleopora brevis</i> Castellani 1933
<i>Mycoderma dermatitidis</i> Brumpt 1922	<i>Endomyces capillatus</i> Moore 1933
<i>Clenospora gemmella</i> Illacci and Nannizzi 1927	<i>Endomyces dermatitidis</i> Moore 1933
<i>Blasatomyces dermatitidis</i> Castellani 1928	<i>Zymomonas dermatitidis</i> De Lencastre 1933
<i>Blasatomyces dermatitidis</i> Castellani 1928	<i>Cilichneumon dermatitidis</i> Reddish and Clifford 1934
<i>Blasatomyces dermatitidis</i> Castellani 1928	<i>Torula neoformans</i> Alnow 1933
	<i>Zymomonas capillaris</i> De Lencastre 1933

In tissue *Blasatomyces dermatitidis* appears as a large rounded cell 8-15  $\mu$  and sometimes 1-2  $\mu$  in diameter with a rather thick wall which gives it the appearance of double contour. Certain of the cells are in the budding stage. The bud which is usually smaller than the cell and has a much finer membrane than the mother cell. Occasionally instead of forming a separate bud the cell elongates and the bud forms an outgrowth of a hand mirror. More exceptionally a whole row of round cells is to be found arranged in a row before their separation from the mother. These cells can easily be distinguished from those of *Coccidioides immitis* the latter being much smaller and often associated with mycelial filaments. The cell of *Torula neoformans* are surrounded by a single layer of very thick warty membrane. The cell membrane of *Blasatomyces dermatitidis* may be somewhat thick at the point of budding. Confusion with *Blasatomyces dermatitidis* is most likely the reason for the budding which characterizes this species should look for *Coccidioides immitis* which is a fungus which is not found in the skin of *Blasatomyces dermatitidis*.

Cultures of *B. dermatitidis* are of two kind. On blood medium at 37 C the colonies are yellowish white, waxy of soft consistency and erlenmeyer in form. The colonies at 25 C or 30 C form a downy mould, whitish at first but now and then brownish. Smooth colonies recovered from corems and others of floury appearance have been described.

The colonies cultured at 37 C represent the yeast like phase corresponding to that within the tissues. Here are to be found the large rounded and budding cells. The bud have a very large base which readily distinguishes them from true yeast. The outlines of mycelial filaments may all be found in this phase.

In colonies grown at 25 C or 30 C some yeast like elements may be found but the mycelial phase predominates. The mycelial filaments are not however so fully developed as in the first subcultures for the primary cultures represent an intermediate condition between the yeast like and the mycelial phases. In the first subcultures are found mycelial filaments which segment and branch and often constrict. Upon these mycelial filaments are borne the conidia either directly or by intermediary conidiophores 1-10  $\mu$  long. The conidia have smooth walls and their abundance and dimension vary considerably with the strain. They are round or l or pyriform with diameters 3-5  $\mu$ . In old cultures chlamydospores 7-18  $\mu$  may appear with thick and irregular walls.

Temperature is the essential factor which determines whether the yeast like or the mycelial phase shall appear. Raising the temperature up towards 37 C under laboratory conditions always gives the mycelial phase. Above 37 C from 37-50 C the yeast like phase is obtained and lowering this temperature results in the reappearance of the mycelial phase. One or the other of these phases may thus be obtained without difficulty and it is unnecessary to use complicated techniques or to pass again through an animal as is the case with *Histoplasma capsulatum* or *H. farciminosum*. However like *H. capsulatum* *B. dermatitidis* prefers solid media for its yeast like phase and it is only with extreme difficulty that it develops this phase in liquid media. The optimum pH is more on the acid side for the mycelial phase (pH 5-7) than for the yeast like phase (pH 5.5-8.5).

Levine and Ordal (1946) obtained excellent growth of *B. dermatitidis* upon glucose peptone media but they noted that the growth was slower if one used an inoculum made up of an million of spores from the mycelial phase than one made up from the yeastlike phase. Further on glucose media containing various salts and especially ammonium sulphate as the nitrogen source only the inoculum made up from the yeast like phase developed appreciably.

### Symptomatology

*Blastomyces dermatitidis* probably has two means of access to humans. The one is cutaneous leading to a localized and somewhat benign symptomatology. The other is respiratory leading to the severe generalized form (in terms *Blastomycosis* of American authors) with lung damage in most

1948. The generalized form of blastomycosis can equally give rise to cutaneous lesions but as noted by Starrs and Klotz (1949) whereas in the primary cutaneous form the lesions are restricted to the exposed parts of the skin in the generalized form they are confined to the covered regions. Both forms will be dealt with in succession.

As already indicated the cutaneous lesions in the *primary cutaneous* form appear upon uncovered or exposed parts—face, hands, wrist, feet and ankle joint. The primary lesion is a pimple (papula) which slowly spreads at the periphery and becomes covered with a scab bearing a purulent pus. The edges of the spreading papula describe a perfect circle or are serpiginous. The centre tends to heal in step with the spread of the lesion leaving an unpleasant scar. A typical feature of the margins is the enclosure of many small abscesses in which the parasite is easily detected. From these may be obtained material of the pure cutaneous form for purposes of culture. Wartiness is also typical of the lesion margins.

In the *generalized form* pulmonary lesions occur in 9 per cent of the cases, cutaneous lesions in 50 per cent, bony lesions in 60 per cent (especially ribs and vertebra), damage to liver, spleen and kidneys in 40 per cent and prostatic lesions in 20 per cent of patients. Lesions of the central nervous system occur in about 30 per cent of the cases.

Pulmonary lesions are usually the first sign of a generalized blastomycosis accompanied by cough, soreness, blood-streaked sputum and rather high fever. As the pulmonary symptom spreads the disease is disseminated to other organs notably with the formation of subcutaneous abscesses. These appear as nodules or gummy masses which soften, open and discharge. The margins of the ulcer thus formed are warty and enclose many small abscesses as in the primary cutaneous form.

### Histopathology

Study of a cutaneous biopsy reveals two very special features. The first involves considerable epidermal hyperplasia which may cause the lesion to be taken for an epithelioma. The second is the presence of minute abscesses in the epidermal or dermal layers. In the epidermal case are found cells of *B. dermatitidis* liberated in the pus or enclosed in macrophages.

In other tissues the histological reaction is that of a granuloma leading to necrosis and suppuration. In the lungs are found a great many milium abscesses comprising cells of *B. dermatitidis*, multinucleated giant cells, plasma-cytes, epithelioid cells and occasional eosinophils.

### Blastomycetina

Patient with North American blastomycosis are likely to react to blastomycetin introduced intradermally by the formation of an erythematous papula which forms three or four days after the injection and may in very allergic patients be accompanied by a low abscess formation at the place of inoculation. When this reaction is positive it is to be concluded that

the patient has blastomycosis only if no rise of leukocyte reaction does not however indicate freedom from blastomycosis and if it is known from another technique that the patient has Gilchrist disease the prognosis is not favorable. It would seem that the conclusions to be drawn from this procedure are similar to those which the leprosy specialist draws from Mitsuda's reaction in Hansen disease.

According to Jones and Martin (1941) the intracutaneous test technique is as follows: the cutaneous tests are carried out by a heat-killed vaccine prepared by suspending, in sterile physiological saline the yeast-like phase of a culture of *B. dermatitidis* on blood agar at 37°C. This suspension is centrifuged in a Hephins tube and the sediment is once more suspended in enough physiological saline for a dilution of 1:1000 by volume. The standard suspension is warmed for four hours at 60°C. Its sterility is confirmed by inoculating copiously upon a tube of blood agar which is maintained at 37°C for at least ten days. An antiseptic 0.3 per cent tricresol is added and 0.1 ml. of this suspension is injected intradermally to test the skin. During the following 15 or 20 minutes an erythematous zone usually appears at the level of the injection. This reaction has no specific value and occurs in patients with other types of pulmonary disease. The characteristic reaction commences 1-24 hours after injection and reaches a maximum in 4 days. It exactly resembles a positive tuberculin reaction. In very allergic patients a sterile abscess may appear at the point of inoculation. The appearance of a positive reaction may be considered an indication of blastomycosis. This diagnosis is verified by the presence of antibodies in the patient's serum.

Demonstration of complement fixation is obtained by using antigen suspension from a living culture of the yeast-like phase obtained by growing on blood agar at 37°C. The titre of this suspension is determined experimentally. The proof of complement fixation in blastomycosis has peculiar value when it is positive. When negative it has no diagnostic significance but indicates in the case of a sufferer from Gilchrist's disease a certain resistance of the organism. It is to be noted that this reaction is always negative in primary cutaneous form.

Result of these two reactions are obviously essential before considering therapeutic measures as their study plays an important role in treatment.

### Treatment

Gilchrist disease is one of the rare systemic mycoses which can be cured. It is sensitive to potassium iodide which may therefore be applied in the most appropriate dose as specific therapeutic measure.

Before administering potassium iodide it is necessary to find out the patient's sensitivity or more precisely his allergic condition. A cutaneous test is carried out by injection of killed vaccine already described. If the observed cutaneous reaction 4-48 hours after injection does not exceed 1 cm in diameter potassium iodide may be administered by a rapid method scheduled by Conant *et al.* as follows: a saturated solution

of potassium iodide is administered at the rate of 3 times 3 drops per day and increased by 3 times 1 drop per day until the patient receives 3 times 100 drops per day. Having reached this dose a fresh beginning is made from 3 times 3 drops per day.

If the patient's reaction from intradermal injection of vaccine had a diameter greater than 1 cm the patient must be desensitized by previous injections of killed vaccine before administering potassium iodide. This desensitization is carried out by subcutaneous injection every other day of 0.1, 0.3 to 1 ml of vaccine diluted to 1:100 if the reaction is 1 cm, 1:1000 if the reaction is 3 cm and 1:10,000 for a reaction exceeding 3 cm. Often after two weeks a sufficiently satisfactory desensitization is obtained to permit commencement of the potassium iodide treatment. In this case a slow method is employed consisting of administering a saturated solution of potassium iodide at the rate of 3 times 3 drops per day and increasing by 1 drop per day (not by 3 times 1 drop) until the dose 3 times 90 drops has been reached after which one reverts to the initial dose.

Vaccine injection may reveal a local or a general reaction accompanied by temperature rise. In these cases the commencement should be lower.

Iodine has also been introduced as sodium iodide injected intravenously (1 g. per day) or by the inhalation of ethyl iodide. In the cutaneous form X-rays often produce very useful results.

It is obvious that a symptomatic therapy will accompany a path therapy.

### Prognosis

Prognosis of North American blastomycosis differs according to whether the type in question is cutaneous or general. Whilst it is favourable in the former it is customarily fatal in 90 per cent (Martin and Smith) of cases of the generalized form. A already indicated a high antibody production is an unfavourable sign whilst a violent cutaneous reaction is the most hopeful. Death occurs from 2 to 3 years after the appearance of the first clinical signs.

### Differential Diagnosis

It is of little value to enumerate the series of diseases with which blastomycosis may be confused in the generalized form. The cutaneous form may simulate warty tuberculosis, chromoblastomycosis, bacterial pyoderma, syphilis and a great many other ulcerous conditions.

### Mycological Diagnosis

The mycological diagnosis of blastomycosis is established by finding the parasite in the pus or in sections and by culture.

Animal inoculation as will presently be indicated is of little value.

Investigation of the parasite in the pus is made by first examining two

without the addition of a clearing agent or possibly better after dilution of the pus with a drop of 20-30 per cent caustic potash. If budding forms are not found immediately it may prove useful to raise the coverslip and re-examine 4 hours later.

Sections of tissues may be stained by eosin haematoxylin, but according to Lunn and Bowen (1930) superior results may be obtained by a silver impregnation method.

Culture may be initiated from pus obtained from microabscesses of cutum and urine. The suspected material is cultured upon blood agar and incubated at 37 C or on Sabouraud medium at laboratory temperature. Culture must be retained for at least 3 weeks before being discarded.

### Experimental Inoculation

As already mentioned it is difficult to inoculate blastomycosis in animals so this method is not recommended in establishing a diagnosis. It may be resorted to however to confirm the pathogenic nature and to retrieve a possible budding form of strain of *Blastomyces dermatitidis* already isolated in culture.

The most susceptible animal is the white mouse subjected to intraperitoneal inoculation. The guinea pig is relatively insensitive and the rabbit almost completely so. For successful inoculation it is necessary to use a large quantity of spores. In the white mouse it is possible to watch the appearance of granulations on the peritoneum from which budding form of *B. dermatitidis* may be recovered.

### Blastomycosis in Animals

Benbrook, Bryant and Simonds (1948) in a recent review of animal cases certified that 11 cases have been reported for the dog. In this animal the pulmonary lesion is dominant but Kliner has reported a case of cutaneous blastomycosis in a dog which infected two members of the family with which it lived. Benbrook *et al.* reported a case of blastomycosis in man; the diagnosis unfortunately was based only on histopathological examination.

### Taxonomy

The characters of *Blastomyces dermatitidis* having been predicted it is perhaps better to refrain from setting forth a tentative systematic scheme for a parasite for which it is acknowledged by all that the binomial which designates it has no merit other than that of priority.

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## CHAPTER IV

# South American Blastomycosis or Lutz's Disease

### Definition

This mycosis is characterized by granulomatous lesions attacking the mucous membranes of the skin, the ganglia, the gastro-intestinal tract and the lungs. It is caused by *Blastomyces brasiliensis*. The nomenclature of this disease is rather ill established. North American workers naturally call it South American Blastomycosis in contrast with Gilchrist disease which is North American blastomycosis. South American authorities prefer the name Lutz disease in honour of the worker who described the first cases. The eponym Lutz-Splendore-Almeida disease is also widely encountered in which Lutz's name is connected with that of Splendore who was the first to cultivate the pathogenic fungus and also that of Almeida who made the first comprehensive study of the disease. Another name which is going out of fashion is that of paracoccidioides granuloma. An appellation given to a period when a parallel had been established between Lutz disease and coccidioidomycosis.

Evidently the name Lutz disease ought to be retained in preference to that of South American blastomycosis since the latter name gives undue prominence to the yeast-like phase which the parasite undergoes in the tissues.

Other synonyms are found in the literature particularly—

Brazilian blastomycosis	Paracoccidioides granuloma
Malignant coccidioides lymphogranulomatosis	Neotropical blastomycosis
Coccidioides lymphogranuloma	Paracoccidioides
Malignant pulmonary granuloma of blastomycotic origin	Lutz mycosis

### Historical

Lutz (1904) described the first two and he recognized the histology which distinguishes the causal agent of South American blastomycosis from those of coccidioidomycosis and Gilchrist disease respectively, but he considered the differences to be slight. Consequently he put the three diseases together under the common appellation American hypoblastomycosis.

Splendore (1909) described new forms of the disease and three years



later named the fungus responsible *Zygonema brasiliense*. Up to the present he has cultured it and inoculated it into several laboratory animals. Curiously enough since 1911 Splendore has observed perfectly the multiple budding typical of the parasite in the tissues a character regarded as specifically diagnostic by modern workers. In spite of this during the ensuing years the question remained unresolved and Lutz' disease is regularly confused with coccidioidomycosis. It was not until 1927 that comparative study by Souza Campos and Almeida of the fungus responsible for the two diseases permitted them to be distinguished one from another. A little later Almeida proposed the genus *Paracoccidioides* in which he placed the agent of Lutz' disease under the binomial *Paracoccidioides brasiliensis*.

In 1940 Conant and Howell established a correct parallelism between the agents of Coccidiomycosis and Lutz's diseases respectively; they gave the name *Blastomyces brasiliensis* to the agent of South American blastomycosis.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

Lutz' disease is a relatively frequent mycosis. Almeida has called attention to 500 cases in South America. According to Versiani and Bighiolo (1948) a thousand cases have been reported from Brazil.

The geographical distribution of this disease is essentially South American and especially Brazilian. In Argentina a good many cases have been reported. Some have been recognized in Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay. Apart from South America some rare cases have been discovered in Costa Rica.

The disease is found especially in young adults aged 30-40 with an absolutely great predominance of men to women (about 9 to 1).

All races are susceptible and the disease takes a heavy toll of manual workers in fields and on farms.

### Etiology

Nothing is known of the origin of Lutz' disease except that it seems to have a preference for land workers.

### Pathogenic Agent

There appears to be only one pathogenic agent of this disease although several species have been described. The causal agent *Blastomyces brasiliensis* (Splendore 1911) (Conant and Howell 1941) is known under many synonyms especially—

<i>Zygonema brasiliense</i>	Splendore	<i>Paracoccidioides coccidiiformis</i>	
1911		Moore 1933	
<i>Paracoccidioides brasiliensis</i>		<i>Paracoccidioides</i>	Almeida 1927
Almeida 1927			

In tissue the organism takes the form of rounded cells with double contour 10-40  $\mu$  in diameter which reproduce by multiple budding.

boiling. All agree that the form with multiple budding which may be somewhat difficult to demonstrate in tissues is the only form diagnostic of the species. South American workers have dubbed it the wagon wheel (a *rueda d'automóvil*) or aerodynamic motor (*motor d'aeroplano*) form.

B ghio (1941) has presented well documented work up in forms of *B brasiliensis* in tissue upon budding. The rounded cell in tissues are either free or enclosed within giant cells. Budding may commence in larger cells up to  $40 \mu$  in diameter. The bud, single or multiple are fusariable size with diameter  $0.5-1 \mu$  according to the size of the cell from which they are derived.

According to B ghio I suspect that there who have studied the matter the effect is true budding and not a process of the exterior of pores formed within the cell (cryptopores) of (C f r m and Pedacelli or continuous sporulation of F o n e n). In certain mother cell B ghio has observed chromatin masses disposed round the periphery of the cell where they had been pushed by the formation of a central vacuole penetrating into pocket formed by a thinning of the wall of the mother cell and going into the bud after having been surrounded by little cytoplasm. There is no formation of little cells such as has been claimed to be due to the limitation of bud formed inside the cell.

Cells with multiple bud are not encountered with equal frequency in all tissues. They are most readily detected in kidneys with no outlet perispermium drooping off the cellular wall and from guinea pig ticks scarcely ever contain a bud.

Cultures of *Blasomys brasiliensis* exhibit phases according to the incubation temperature. Whereas at laboratory temperature filamentous colonies are obtained at  $17^{\circ}\text{C}$  the colonies are made up of yeast like elements similar to those recovered from tissues. As noted by Constant and H e l l (1941) these facts emphasize the similarity between *B brasiliensis* and *B dermatidis*.

The yeast like phase is developed at  $17^{\circ}\text{C}$  on the usual media addition of blood to the culture medium not being necessary. The colonies are glabrous cerebiform and strongly resemble yeast colonies. As already stated they contain elements of identical morphology with those of cell present in tissues. The buds are either single or multiple.

The filamentous phase grows slowly (sometimes four weeks are needed for primary culture) at laboratory temperature or at  $17^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The colonies are thin, membranous or corrugated and cover the center with whitish down which tends to brown upon drying. The branched and segmented filament produce oval or round colonies similar to those found in colonies of *B dermatidis*. However the conical forms of *P dermatidis* are less regular than those of *B brasiliensis*.

Transition from one phase to the other is easily brought about by making a fresh inoculation from a colony of any phase whatever and altering to the temperature necessary for the phase required.

### Symptomatology

Intussusception takes two forms—localized and generalized or mixed.

1. In the localized type the lesions are cutaneous mucosal lymphangitic or visceral. The cutaneous mucosal lesions are localized in the buccal mucosa (tongue, cheek, pharynx, larynx, palate) and extend toward the exterior, encroaching upon the skin of the face. The lesions of the buccal cavity commence with a small papule which ulcerate and spread from the margins. The regional lymph nodes are rapidly involved. The cutaneous lesions are warty, papillomatous and ulcerate at the middle with marginal hypertrophy. The localized ganglionic lesions encroach upon the lymph nodes of the neck and produce a clinical picture strongly reminiscent of Hodgkin's disease. The lymph node may necrose and drain to the exterior through sinuses. The visceral localization is most frequently met with in the cecal and appendicular region.

In the mixed or generalized type are encountered bucco-lymphangitic, bucco-cutaneous lymphangitic and cutaneous lymphangitic symptoms associated with crippling of the gastro-intestinal tract and accompanied by hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, ascites. According to Vassini (1915) more than 50 per cent of cases may develop bony lesions involving destruction of the epiphyses and the metaphyses. The frequency of pulmonary lesion in the mixed forms is still very controversial. The São Paulo school considers this type of localization to be rare but this view is obviously being modified if reliance is placed upon the report of the 1941 Conference on Intussusception. The Rio de Janeiro authorities think on the contrary that lung involvement is very frequent and occurs in as many as 80 per cent of the cases. Fialho (autopsy) found pulmonary lesions in 84 per cent of the cases and in another series of 10 cases obtained them in 16 instances (94.1 per cent). Nino (Arquimedes) noted lung attack as inevitable. X-ray reveals perihilar and mediastinal nodules. Sputum is purulent and blood-streaked. Ritter has recently (1948) reported two cases of tumour, one cerebral, the other cerebral, caused by *B. brahman*. But apparently the organism was not cultured.

In the localized form the general condition will maintain itself as long as the localization of lesion (bucco-pharyngeal form) does not permit the ingestion of nutriment. In the generalized form the prognosis is not so reaching a peak in the evening and often occurring at night. There is considerable emaciation and also hypodermatous anasarca.

### Histopathology

Histologically the lesions are entirely similar to those met with in Calchiet's disease and those which may occur in connection with granuloma in giant cell form from which the pathogenic fungi are recovered in great numbers. There is an infiltration of the tissue by histiocytes, polymorphs and lymphocytes. Polynuclear eosinophils and eosinophilic mononuclear

rarely found. At the last stage, when the fungous hyphae are more abundant.

### Treatment

Much progress has resulted from the introduction of sulphonamide therapy by the South American workers. In fact only the sulphonamides are effective. It is not yet proved that their use results in final cure but it is quite certain that they prevent the spread of the disease from the primary focus and check the development of the secondary focus especially the pulmonary lesions.

Sulphapyridine may be administered as an initial dose of 100 mg/kg followed by a dose of 1 g repeated every four hours so long as the drug may be taken satisfactorily.

Patilha Gonçalves estimates that the blood concentration of sulphamerazine and sulphadiazine must be at least 0.5 mg. per cent whilst that of sulphathiazole may be slightly less.

Luna Cast and Abbott (1947) report having cured a patient suffering from a fulminating pulmonary form by the administration of sulphamerazine at the rate of 3 g during the first day then going up to a total dose of 37 g.

Potassium iodide has also been much used especially by Almeida. Its therapeutic action is however slow and therefore appears to be of little value in disseminated infection if it is used.

As to vaccines too few results are yet available for any appraisal of their value.

### Prognosis

In general up to the introduction of sulphonamide therapy prognosis has hitherto been regarded as fatal after an interval which does not appear to have been definitely ascertained.

In spite of the very favourable opinions of those who have used the sulphonamides in Lutz disease it still remains to be established whether they effect a cure rather than that they simply arrest the disease.

### Differential Diagnosis

There are various possible diagnoses according to the form which the disease may assume. The lymphangitic form may often be confused with Hodgkin disease. Pulmonary lesions may be taken for tuberculous, tumorous lesions for syphilis or South American trypanosomiasis. The haemorrhages from intestinal lesions may be confused with the haemorrhages of other diseases in which blood is present in the stool.

There may be confusion with other mycoses such as cryptococcosis (Cryptococcus disease) and occidiodomycosis.

### Mycological Diagnosis

Specific diagnosis may be established in three ways.

1. *Formulation of the Organism* The fungus responsible for Lutz

discrete may be looked for in secretion, abscess, sinuses and putum. Pathological material obtained from a swab or by tapping with syringe may be smeared out on a slide in a small quantity of caustic potash (30 per cent) and examined under a cover slip. It will be recalled that the yeast-like elements which have a diameter as much as  $60 \mu$  may produce one or more buds from  $\sim 10 \mu$ . Only the presence of the multiple budding forms confirms the diagnosis of Lutz disease since budding forms with single buds are also found in Gilchrist disease. Non-budding forms will be distinguished from *Coccidioides immitis* by the presence of endospores in the latter organism. Certain forms of *C. immitis* however do not form endospores.

The pathogen may also be demonstrated in sections stained with counter-stain, fast green or by one of the silver impregnation methods.

**Culture Methods.** Secretions, pus or biopsy scrapings are cultured on Giboulaud's medium and kept at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  or  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The culture tube must be retained for at least four weeks as the fungus grows very slowly in the primary cultures.

**3. Animal Inoculation.** This should be carried out by one of the techniques indicated under experimental inoculation.

In conclusion before a diagnosis of *Blastomyces brasiliensis* may be allowed there must be evidence of form with multiple budding in the pathological product in culture kept at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  and in the tissue of inoculated animal.

### Immunity

There is no specific reaction in Lutz disease. Complement fixation studies starting with cultural filtrates as antigen have given positive reactions not only for Lutz's disease but also for paratuberculosis, chromoblastomycosis and with the serum of patient afflicted with leishmaniasis (Almeida).

On the other hand the intradermal injection of anti-*C. brasiliensis* from culture is followed by welling, erythema and occasionally discomfort. It is not certain whether the reaction is specific. The intradermal injection of coccidioidin produces no reaction but blastomycin (distillate from cultures of *B. dermatitidis*) may give a positive reaction.

Neve de Silva has recently prepared an antivenom by suspending pus obtained from guinea pig testicle inoculated with *B. brasiliensis* for one hour at  $30^{\circ}\text{C}$  upon three consecutive days (tyndallization). Before the tyndallization process the pus which is rich in budding forms is filtered fifteen times with physiological saline. Intradermal injection of  $0.1 \text{ ml}$  of this suspension produces in patient with Lutz disease a local erythematous papule which lasts three days and tends to increase in certain areas. The reaction is negative in controls (control with other mycoses).

# Experimental Inoculation

Inoculations may be made either with pathological product or with cultures but are usually carried out with the latter. Unfortunately most workers fail to indicate whether they have used the yeast like or the filamentous phase - both forms are pathogenic.

Both intraperitoneal and intratesticular have been used satisfactorily.

1. In the guinea pig, inoculation must be carried out in the testicle (cultured elements are recovered 48 hours after inoculation then they are removed and return in tissue form by the sixth day. Clinically the lesion appears at first as a nodule accompanied exceptionally (4 times out of 4 guinea pigs inoculated according to Fialho and Gonçalves) by involvement of the regional lymph nodes which however always heal though it may be possible to recover the parasite from them. The orchiatic stage is followed by a softening phase which is complete within a month of inoculation. By this time the testicle is transformed to a mass of pus in which are present large numbers of budding forms. According to most observers however forms exhibiting multiple budding are here found but rarely.

2. In mice intraperitoneal injection is necessary. Infection progresses slowly and 5 or 6 weeks after inoculation there may be detected small nodules containing budding forms in the mesentery and other organs. Neither of the animal species has shown generalized infection.

## Taxonomy

The genus *Paracoccidioides* has been erected on account of the alleged resemblance between the pathogenic agent of coccidioidomycosis *C. immitis* and that of Lutz and others. In fact the presence of endospores in the tissue forms of *C. immitis* and the existence of this fungus in unique cultural form conclusively separates it from *Blastoschizum brasiliensis*. On the contrary *B. brasiliensis* has strong affinities with *B. dermatitidis* like the latter it reproduces in the tissues by budding, is devoid of endospores and has two phases in culture depending upon temperature. The only distinguishing feature is the occurrence of multiple budding in the tissue form or the yeast like phase in cultures of *B. brasiliensis*.

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## CHEILOID BLASTOMYCOSIS OR LOBO'S DISEASE

This little known disease was first described in 1933 at Recife in the State of Pernambuco by Lobo. A second case was described at Rio de Janeiro in 1937 by Fialho. By Arca Lobo Cury Melk and Mano Coto again in 1940 whilst Arca Lobo Coto and Cury in 1948 wrote interesting papers on the organism responsible for the disease. Lobo Coto and Arca Lobo have since 1940 assigned it to the genus *Clenosporella* Nannizzi 1930 calling it *Clenosporella lobo*.

Cheloid blastomycosis is an essentially chronic disease characterized by the maintenance of a good general condition and the formation in the skin of cheloid papules in which are found great numbers of fruiting bodies from 8-10  $\mu$  in diameter which reproduce by one or by two buds.

At ordinary temperatures the fungus grows best in the form of a slightly dry colony. The filament are branched and segmental. After being cultured for one or two months they give rise to numerous or plurigenous conidia which measure 1 by 8  $\mu$  or 3 by 10  $\mu$  (cultures kept at 37° C yield a yeast like phase which reproduces by one or two buds).

Inoculation into guinea pig, testicle or mouse peritoneum leads to an orchitis which gives way to suppuration. From the pus may be isolated the same forms which occur in human tissue.

There are such evident affinities with *Blastomycosis brasiliensis* and *B. dermatitidis* that if the creation of a new species is justified it should be named *Blastomycosis lobo* rather than *Clenosporella lobo*.

Apart from their differences as pathogens these three species may be distinguished from one another as follows: budding, single in *B. dermatitidis*, single or double in *B. lateralis* and single or multiple in *B. brasiliensis*.

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## CHAPTER V

### *The Cephalosporioses*

UNDER THE NAME are included all cases produced by imperfect fungi of the genus *Cephalosporium* Corda, of which the type species is *Cephalosporium acremonium* Corda 1839. This saprophytic species (from soil decomposing plant remains dead in cell) has repeatedly been isolated from different types of lesion, and it is doubtful whether it is really pathogenic or not for man. A fair number of *Cephalosporium* species are pathogenic for plants and certain arthropods.

The genus *Cephalosporium* typically has a vegetative mycelium made up of segmented hyphae which bear sporophores inserted at right angles upon which develop a mass of terminal spores oval or cylindrical in shape bound together by mucilage. The conidia are the microspores. The genus is distinguished from *Acetabularia* Link 1809 in which the sporophores usually bear at their extremity one fusiform spore which is easily detached.

*Cephalosporium* species have been isolated from epidermal lesions inflammatory or otherwise (intertrigo, onychia, vulvovaginitis) from mucous membranes (buccal, ocular, vesicular) from blood and putum.

The multiplication of lesions together with the ubiquity of *Cephalosporium* species renders very suspect the already numerous work which attribute the production of a variety of lesions to various species of *Cephalosporium*. The well documented work of Coutin (1927) and Biquet (Les Cephalosporioses humaines 4 *Annales II* (1948) 23-6, 364-99) may profitably be consulted on this matter.

## CHAPTER VI

# Chromoblastomycosis

### Definition

Chromoblastomycosis is a chronic dermatosis caused by the accidental injection of various species of Fungi Imperfecti belonging to the genus *Phialophora*. Generally confined to one of the lower limbs it is characterized by warty nodules which develop slowly into a vast papillomatous sheet and end with or without ulceration. This infectious disease is not contagious.

The disease was first described under the name verrucose dermatitis (Lane 1911 Medlar 1911). The term chromoblastomycosis was proposed in 1922 by Terra, Torres da Fonseca and de Azevedo. In spite of numerous criticisms this term is the most frequently used at present. The most important of these criticisms was that the word suggested a mycosis caused by a budding fungus. This misled Moore and de Almeida to propose the word chromomycosis which was used in the first edition of this treatise but which does not seem to have become popular. Other names such as verrucose chromomycotic dermatitis (Redaelli and Ciferri 1941) and disease of Lane, Pedroso and Gomez (Pereira Filho 1949) have met with little approval. It would seem that the denomination chromoblastomycosis without having priority is so old and well established that its modification or replacement would lead to unnecessary confusion. This term only is used here.

### Historical

The first case of chromoblastomycosis was diagnosed in Boston in 1915 by Lane and Medlar. These workers published their observations separately, the former dealing with the clinical aspects and the latter with the characters of the fungus which he had isolated and described. Fifteen years later Pedroso and Gomez (1930) again finding the disease in Brazil attributed it to an organism identical with the one isolated by the North American workers and Pedroso reported having met with one case since 1910. In 1922 Terra *et al.* described a new Brazilian case which resulted in the important discovery that their organism was not only dissimilar to that isolated by Medlar in the United States but also that the parasite isolated by Pedroso and Gomez had been erroneously referred to *Phialophora verrucosa* Medlar 1911. In fact it turned out to be a form of *Acrostyces*. Brumpt (1922) identified this Brazilian species as *Hormodendrum pedrosoi*. In 1924 Carini described two new cases of verrucose

dermatitis in São Paulo and made the point that in 1910 he had isolated from the big frog of Brazil (*Leptodactylus pentadactylus*) a fungus similar to the agent of the dermatosis.

Montpellier and Catanei discovered in 1927 in Algiers the first case of African chromoblastomycosis and also incidentally the first case of this disease recorded outside the American continent. They referred it to a new species *Hormodendron algeriensis*.

Whilst fresh cases increasingly appeared in South America and elsewhere it was not until 1933 that Wilson, Hulcay and Weidman reported the second North American case. This second case from Texas was like the first caused by *Phialophora terrucosa*. It was not until 1938 that Martin, Baker and Conant reported having found a North American case caused by *Hormodendrum pedrosi*. In 1941 Vanbreuseghem, Vandepitte, Thys and Winder reported the first case of chromoblastomycosis in Central Africa and attributed it to *Phialophora pedrosi*.

This short historical account emphasizes the difficulties which beset workers in this field. Other fundamental contributions, whether of mycological or clinical interest, will be dealt with more appositely in the text which follows.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

In spite of the copious literature devoted to chromoblastomycosis the number of cases of the disease as yet recorded for the whole world has not appear to exceed 150-200 and it may be justly described as rare. The chief countries where it is found are Brazil, Porto Rico and Cuba. According to Pardo Castello, Rio Leon and Freespilcoos who has made an extremely important contribution to the subject (1941) chromoblastomycosis is relatively frequent in Cuba. Besides the three main regions of occurrence, cases have been reported from the following countries: South Africa, Algeria, Argentina, Australia, the Belgian Congo, Costa Rica, the United States, Guatemala, Japan, Java, Porto Rico, Rhodesia, Russia, Dominica, Sumatra, Uruguay, Venezuela. The chromoblastomycosis though cosmopolitan is predominantly distributed in tropical and sub-tropical regions.

### Etiology

*Chromoblastomycosis* is especially found in male adults who are being rarely attacked by it. No race is immune and it is chiefly among the hard workers that cases occur. Wounding, or wood splinters are usually involved before the disease is contracted and this is obviously related to the biology of *Phialophora*.

### The Agents of Chromoblastomycosis

The pathogenic fungi isolated from cases of chromoblastomycosis comprise three species within the unique genus *Phialophora* (Medlar 1931) emend. Emmon 1944. These are *Phialophora terrucosa* Medlar 1931

*Ihalophora pedrosa* (Brumpt 1911) n. comb. Emmons 1944 and *Ihalophora compacta* n. (Carrion 1973) n. comb. Emmons 1944. The genus *Phialophora* attributed by some to Medlar and by others to Thaxter was first described by Medlar in 1915. In this paper it was clearly stated that Medlar had consulted Thaxter but it is equally clear that Medlar claims the credit for the erection of the genus *Ihalophora* and the species *errucosa*. One of the figures from the work in question has the legend *Phialophora terricola* n. Medlar a fact which seems to be conclusive.

On the other hand Emmons who willingly considers the genus *Ihalophora* as Thaxter (in Henriette Vial's Yeast and Actinomyces 1948) attributes the revision of the genus to three authors namely Binford Howe and Emmons (1944) though it is evident from the very title of the work that it is to Emmons that we owe this revision. The courtesy shown by the great American mycologist to his co-authors is understandable but not generally acceptable and the correct designation would appear to be *Ihalophora* (Medlar 1915) emend. Emmons 1944 and not *Ihalophora* (Thaxter 1915) emend. Binford *et al.* 1944.

The *Phialophora* species are Dimorphic with two forms of imperfect reproduction which may be found simultaneously or separately.

1 Unicellular phialospore scarcely or not pigmented may be produced in phialides—type *Phialophora*.

There may be erogenous pleurogonous or acropleurogonous reproduction upon erect conidiophores of dark spores (type *Aerotheca*) or upon erect terminal or lateral conidiophores of spores in small chains (type *Hormodendrum*!).

This larger conception of the genus *Ihalophora* is the result of the increase of knowledge of the mycology of blatomyces. In view of the apparent conflict between Medlar's finding (1915) that the disease was caused by a species with a single form of reproduction and those of Terra *et al.* (1922) who demonstrated the existence of another species with another form of reproduction it became evident eventually that several forms of reproduction could co-exist in the same species. If the three known species are accepted as *errucosa*, *pedrosa* and *compacta* then apart from *errucosa* which is unanimously attributed to the genus *Phialophora* the other species are variously distributed amongst the genera *Hormodendrum* (or *Chlorophora*) n. *Ihalophora*, *Fonsecaea* etc. Thus in the literature *Hormodendrum pedrosa* is readily found as *Ihalophora* or *Fonsecaea pedrosa*.

It is important to recall that in 1917 Cozzani established on morphological basis that the genus *Coelophora* Lagerberg and Melin 1917 comprising various species discovered in wood pulp must go with *Phialophora* Thaxter 1915 with which it shares characteristic reproduction by

In view of *Hormodendrum* correct and not *H. adei*! Cf. Boed. *Hid. f. ally. Upl.* 1: 818.



phialales (*lophium verrucosum* Nannf.) thus synonymous with *Phialophora verrucosa* and the following *C. loykeni* species pass into the genus *Phialophora*—

<i>Ph. f. digitata</i> (Lagerb.) and M. lin)	<i>Ph. M. l.</i> (Nannf.) Conant
Conant	<i>Ph. repens</i> (Davidson) Conant
<i>Ph. Brunneoven.</i> (Davidson) Conant	<i>Ph. Richardstone</i> (Nannf.) Conant
<i>Ph. Lagerbergi</i> (Melin and Nannf.)	
Conant	

It is of interest that 1938 Martin's study of complement fixation established the antigen similarity of a strain of *Endophthora americana* with several strains of *Ph. verrucosa* isolated from human whereas other *Endophthora* strains isolated from wood pulp but differing in morphology from *Ph. verrucosa* belonged to a different antigen group.

### The Cultures—Macroscopic

The morphology of the three species of fungus, being hemoblastomycous varies according to the culture medium and the origin of the strains. In any case they differ but slightly from one another but it is generally agreed that colonies of *Ph. compacta* grow more slowly than those of the other species.

In general the colonies are in colour from very dark brown to olive black, they take the form of a flattened dome with a frequently mammillated summit, levelling in slope towards the periphery and terminating with a regular well-tooned edge. Concentric or radiating furrows may be visible.

The colonies are colored with a more or less prominent light or dark brown down. For identification of the species microscopic examination is required as the aspect of the cultures gives an insufficient indication. Examination is best carried out with hanging drops which leave the spores in their proper place whereas teasing out completely disturbs them. Cultures on glass slides are unsuitable for study for the hard and very tumid colonies cannot readily be compressed between slide and cover slip. Cultures on hair isolated *in vitro* (Vanbreughem 1930) are well suited for microscopic study of the morphology of the *Phialophora* species.

### The Cultures—Microscopic

The vegetative mycelium of *Phialophora* does not vary from species to species. It is composed of rectilinear or undulated hyphae with thick and dark walls. The hyphae are segmented and branched and their diameter is 1.1–3  $\mu$ . The chlamydospores recall the rounded cells found in trunks; they are rare, spherical, thick-walled and 8–12  $\mu$  in diameter. Some chlamydospores are partitioned into 2, 3 or 4 cells.

The forms of reproduction of three pathogenic species are given

1 *Phialophora terrucona* Medlar 1915 (syn *Cadophora americana* Nannfeld 1927 *Phialophora macrospora* Moore and Almeida 1936)

The reproductive structures are contained in lateral or terminal phialides. The conidia or phialospores are borne at the base of the funnel formed by the collar of the phialide. The phialospores are not in small chains as in the next species but are aggregated in rounded masses held together by a viscous substance. The phialides (3-4  $\mu$  wide by 4-6  $\mu$  long) occur singly or in groups. The phialospores are oval and 1-4  $\mu$ . Besides this mode of reproduction there may rarely appear the same mode of reproduction as in *Ph. pedrosoi*.

*Phialophora pedrosoi* (Brumpt 1922) Fennell 1944

Synonyms—

<i>Hormodendrum pedrosoi</i> Brumpt 1922	<i>Compharia pedrosoi</i> De L. 1935
<i>Acratokea pedrosoi</i> la Fontaine and Leno 1933	<i>Bolrytoide monophora</i> Moore and Almeida 1936
<i>Hormodendrum algériense</i> Montpelier and Citanei 1927	<i>Phialoconidiophora (ajjense)</i> Moore and Almeida 1936
<i>Trichosporium pedrosanum</i> Ota 1928	<i>Hormodendroide pedrosoi</i> Moore and Almeida 1936
<i>Trichosporium pedrosoi</i> Langdon 1929	<i>A. nectacea pedrosoi</i> (Carrion) 1944

This species generally reproduces by conidia borne on terminal or lateral conidiophores on the aerial mycelium (type *Hormodendrum*) or by terminal or lateral building (?) of the vegetative hyphae (type *Acratokea*). In the *Hormodendrum* type the conidia develop basipetally at the extremity of a conidiophore and remain in chains but each conidium may act as the starting point of a small chain of secondary conidia which in turn may yield tertiary conidia. The conidia from which conidia have originated are modified taking the form of an echinon (shank-haped spore of American writers). The uncellular conidia are 3-4  $\mu$  long by 1-3  $\mu$  wide are of dark live colour and are connected to one another by thick interstitial structures. In the *Acratokea* type the conidiophore resemble a knotted stick yielding to a hook a long, twisted and thick walled unicellular conidium.

Apart from the two types of reproduction there may rarely be found in *Ph. pedrosoi* typical phialospores as in *Ph. terrucona*.

3 *Phialophora compactum* (Carrion 1933) Fennell 1944

Synonyms—

<i>Hormodendrum compactum</i> (Carrion) 1933	<i>Phialoconidiophora compactum</i> Moore and Almeida 1936
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In this rare polymorphous chromoblastoma (10-15 by 1-2  $\mu$ ) form compact masses of long, branching, hairs arranged on lateral or terminal conidiophores.



FIG. 3

11 by 15  $\mu$  Vert. section of chromoblastoma

According to Curran (1941) this species has been found in one sex only in Fort Lincoln.

### Symptomatology

Chromoblastomycosis usually starts with a pustule or nodule confined to lower extremity. Frequently the patient calls attention to an anterior traumatic lesion. The foot and leg are especially affected next in order of frequency come the hands, the forearm and the arm, the neck, the shoulders and the buttock. The lesions with rare exception are unilateral.

The pustule or nodule forming the primary lesion may become pruriginous. This lesion enlarges, congests, runs, then becomes dry and scabious. Its peripheral extension is somewhat limited and it is mainly by multiple autoinoculations around the primary lesion that the latter enlarges and resembles after several years a cauliflower formation. The epidermis generally thinner at the surface of the lesion bleeds and ulcerates easily. In other cases the epidermis is covered with scales and



scabs. Young lesions are generally limited, violaceous or dark red in colour and very infiltrated. After frequent ulceration infection progresses regularly and the lymphatics become blocked. At this stage the patient emits a repulsive odour.

Metastasis is exceptional but not unknown. The lymph nodes are usually left alone except in cases of secondary infection. Merime (1935) claims, however, to have observed sequestrated cells in lymphatic channels.



FIG. 4

Chromoblastomycosis

(Courtesy Van der Woude in Van der Woude and Van der Woude)

which also contained tubercular bacilli. A strain of *Horwoodia rossicum* was recovered from culture.

Evidently the symptomatology of chromoblastomycosis is not yet well established, which is to be expected in view of the relatively small number of known cases. Generally speaking the lesion is circumscribed, a verrucous dermatosis, and Carrion (1941) made the interesting observation: 'The more highly pigmented the lesion the less it will be limited to the surrounding skin.'

There is, however, a tendency toward a fuller study of the symptomatology, which may well bring about a modification of the definition of chromoblastomycosis, increasing the differential diagnosis and ultimately result in the discovery of a greater number of cases.

Carrion and Silva (1947) distinguished five types—

1. A nodular type at the beginning, the nodules in part deeply coloured with a smooth, verrucous or squamous surface.

A tumoral type with papillomatous masses sometimes little like cauliflower.

3 Verrucous type in which the nodul or tumoral masses are hyperkeratized.

4 A blotchy type rare squamous stains slightly elevated deeply coloured.

A central type characterized by a healing of the centre of the lesions while they spread at the circumference. The centre is replaced by a trophic scar.

A study of 31 cases in Cuba by Pardo Castillo, Pardo Leon and Tresplados (1941) has resulted in the following classification—

1 Verrucous type	1 case
2 Tuberculous type	4 cases
3 Syphilitic type	4 cases
4 Psoriasisiform type	4 cases
5 Central and elephantoid type	4 cases

The *Phialophora* species can cause other clinical lesions besides the localized chromoblastomycosis. From a generalized onychomycosis which the nails were opaque friable and brown. Arceuthobius (1939) isolated a fungus which he identified *Acritha pedroni*. Again Frumom by transferring *Torula Jeanseae* Langeron 1934 the genus *Phialophora* showed at the same time that *Phialophora* species may be agent of mycetomas.

### Histopathology

The histopathological picture is that of an infectious granuloma. The epidermis is generally hypertrophied with hyperkeratosis not black acanthosis and elongation of the interpapillary processes. Polynuclear leucocytes sometimes infiltrate into the epidermal layers and can even form small abscesses there. In the dermis occurs abundant infiltration of lymphocytes plasmaocytes large mononuclear polynuclear eosinophil Russell bodies epithelioid cells giant cells of Langhans and foreign body type respectively. This infiltration whether localized or diffuse is mainly developed in the superior dermal parts the papillae of which are hypertrophied. Frequently milium bodies are encountered rarely necrosis. The organisms isolated or in groups are free in the dermis or epidermis in the dermis they are often included in giant cells.

### Treatment

#### 1 Surgical

Most workers admit that either extraction or electrocoagulation of the initial lesions (followed by 1 per cent gentian violet application according to Pardo Castillo 1941) must be employed. However even in little advanced cases relapses are frequent.

#### 2 Chemotherapy

There is no agreement that the role of potassium iodide administered per os for long time and in very strong doses (up to

10-15  $\mu$  per day) and of sodium iodide intravenously (1  $\mu$  at the start reaching 9 g after some months). Martin Baker and Conant (1930) have in one case used iontophoresis with copper sulphate with some success.

### 3 Radiotherapy

This has long been used. Paulo Castello *et al* (1941) obtained results in superficial form by administering 600-1400 r filtered by 1 mm of aluminium.

Besides these therapeutic measures designed to suppress the disease secondary therapeutics for the disinfection of tissues attacked will take



Fig. 11

11 Hoyle's picture of a chancre in the skin of a patient from (Case of Vaginal leishmaniasis, Vaginal leishmaniasis, and Vaginal leishmaniasis).

a predominant place in the management of the disease. Even with the addition of iodine added to 10-20 per cent alcohol and applied locally, being about some reduction of the lesions.

The problem is really one of early diagnosis. Since until now only extraction and electrocoagulation have given definitely results in the young form, an early diagnosis is obviously very important.

### Prognosis

Chromoblastomycosis is a disease of long duration. So far as is known up to recent years most lesions have been malin.

to be standing, as it is known when the lesion was present for 40 years. The disease is therefore *quod est sanum* benign one. It becomes of importance only when the tissues are affected the lymphatics blocked and a certain degree of elephantiasis is developed. Sometimes in these cases amputation of limb has to be considered though in general it may well be that local curative hemotherapeutic measures directed against secondary infection and partial extraction by limited and an electric electrocoagulations may delay an operation or postpone it indefinitely.

### Differential Diagnosis

Though the symptomatology of net like nodules chromoblastomycosis may be sufficiently typical to require only simple laboratory confirmation this is far from true at the onset of the disease. There may be confusion with leprosy, tuberculosis, yaws, syphilis, kashanir's monilia and Gilchrist's disease. At certain stages a run the obscure monkey foot and *erruconus lymphaticus* (or *lymphaticus verrucosus cutis*) might suggest a diagnosis of chromoblastomycosis.

### Mycological Diagnosis

Four methods of approach may contribute to a diagnosis of chromoblastomycosis—

1. *Clinical* As already mentioned diagnosis is difficult except when the disease is fully established and it is inadvisable to rely wholly upon laboratory examination.

*Examination of the Lesions or Fungus* Scales Epidermal Debris and Tissue This may be carried out either by biopsy and an anatomical pathological examination or by direct examination of crust or scum from the surface mounted in potash.

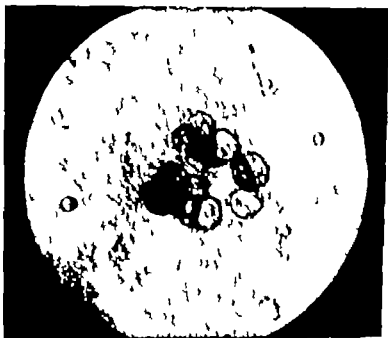
The organism concerned take the form of rounded bodies in the tissue occurring singly or in large numbers and surrounded by thick dark brown membrane. They multiply by cell division and not by budding. The first division yields two cells which also tend to be rounded and these may divide again without separation soon these cells which are not obviously nucleated contain a granular olive brown protoplasm and are about  $10\mu$  in diameter. In sections stained with Gram's the cell wall appears brownish green.

Those who first described the disease gave the name sclerotic or sclerotic cells to the fungal cells found in the tissues. This designation is controversial. Langeron prefers to call them fungoid cells. Emmon's appears to have adopted the term blastomycosis which applied to tissue forms is certainly an innovation. It is interesting to note that de Ara Leno Mello and Cury (1947) found in rats subjected to intratesticular injection nine months previously granules made up of dark rounded cells surrounded by elastic granules of actinomycosis. Again Westman

and Losenthal (1941) found tub like granules in a human cell from which they isolated *Homodendrium pedunculatum*.

In scales the fumigoid forms may be found to have given rise to a filament.

In section strongly coloured tumour form are easily found either intra or extra cellularly in the dermis or in the superficial hyperkeratotic strata.

[illegible]

1 In some pathological Examination is called as not out of the evidence to be gained of a specific histological picture which is that of all infectious granuloma but because it is not the only form of fungal form *in situ*. In our specimen the form indicate is no of chromoblastomycosis and the specimen involved can be cultured in culture.

Culture Isolation in culture carried out at ordinary temperature in Sabouraud test medium using either cake or small fragment of tissue. Binford Hess and Emmons (1944) failed in one case where the fragment of tissue used had probably been subjected to 9 per cent. ethyl alcohol and they recall a similar failure by Wiedemann and Roththal.

### Experimental Inoculation

1. It is first necessary to emphasize that animal inoculation does not result in a reproduction of the disease as it is encountered in man. Human inoculation has, however, been attempted by Takahashi (1937) who successfully inoculated an individual already subject to chromoid worms by making the inoculation in a healthy region and also an individual compensated for the disease.

Even in *Vaccinium* the intradermal or subcutaneous inoculation of cultures end with the formation of nodules or b. c. in which is found the same funal form as in the human disease.

3. Intratectacular mobilization is mostly been studied in the rat. An inflammatory arthritis first appears followed by abscesses within some months.

4. Intraperitoneal injection in the rat or mouse provokes the formation of nodules on the mesentery and other intraperitoneal or an

8 By the intraperitoneal route de Araujo, Le Vilain and Oury (1947) using culture obtained from the clubbed granule cells eloped in rat testicle obtained generalized leucemia in the mouse. These would appear to be exceptional.

**Grand master**

Chromoblastomycosis is a mycosis caused by accidental injection with several species of *Phialophora*. Diagnosis is readily established by observation in the tissues of fungus and forms also called sclerotic cells or chlamydospores. Therapeutic measures have but little effect upon the disease which is of long duration.

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## Coccidioidomycosis

### Definition

Coccidioidomycosis is an infectious disease caused by *Coccidioides immitis*. Very benign and scarcely noticeable at the time when it is first contracted (replicative or primary form) it may exceptionally give way to a chronic form (secondary or progressive) characterized by a varied symptomatology and a high death rate.

There is in fact very little controversy about the name given to the mycosis the synonyms which are generally applied represent only certain phases of the disease or indeed particular aspects of certain phases. Some of these are Coccidioidal granuloma, Valley Fever, Desert Pneumonia, San Joaquin Fever and less frequently Posada's Wernicke's Disease. This last name is applied to the disease as a whole and not merely to one aspect of it.

### Historical

In 1891 Posada and Wernicke discovered in Argentina the first case of disease which they considered to be latent mycosis and which they attributed to a protozoan. They published their results separately in 1892. The second and third cases were found in 1896 in California by Pifford and Gilchrist who named the causal agent *Coccidioides immitis* and also considered it to be a protozoan. Ophuls and Moffitt (1900) established by culture in the third American case the fungal nature of the organism. In 1918 Giltner discovered the first case of coccidioidal granuloma in a bovine at San Diego, California. In 1931 Stewart and Meyer first isolated *Coccidioides immitis* from the ground at a place where four cases of progressive coccidioidomycosis had been detected. Dickson in 1937 proposed the new term coccidioidomycosis to designate at the same time the primary form Valley Fever and the secondary form coccidioidal granuloma of the disease. In 1941 Emmons isolated *C. immitis* from a desert rodent and in the same year with Ashburn described *H. pleroglyphus parvus*. These discoveries clarified few points of the etiology of coccidioidomycosis but at the same time added their quota of confusion.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

Although the first case of coccidioidal granuloma was described in Argentina it is now quite certain that coccidioidomycosis is almost



completely limited to the desert regions of the south western United States namely California Arizona Texas and New Mexico. Only four cases have been reported from South America all of them from the Chaco region of Argentina. One case has been reported by Fernel from the Hawaiian Isles three from Italy and possibly in 1911 Hartmann and Schoon saw one case in Holland.

In the United States quite a few cases have been described outside the principal endemic zones but more often than not it has been possible to relate the occurrence to a previous visit by the patient to one of these zones.

It would be difficult to estimate the number of cases of primary coccidioidomycosis on record as they are so very numerous. The secondary form is by contrast always rare. According to Forbus and Be telecurty (1946) 8 000 cases of primary coccidioidomycosis were diagnosed in soldiers during the last war.

Coccidioidomycosis is a disease of all ages without predominance of sex or race. However the serious form is usually found in men and mainly in coloured races e.g. Negroes Indians Mexicans and Philipinos. In the latter it may be particularly serious. According to Smith Beard Whiting and Rosenberger (1946) the progressive form occurs four times more frequently in men than in women further Mexicans are 31 times more likely to have it than whites negroes 14 times and Philipinos 160 times.

Children living in endemic areas apparently contract at an early age a benign form of the disease detectable by the cutaneous test which immunizes them against further attacks. Young adults who are not immunized and who enter the endemic region appear to be most susceptible.

Laboratory infections caused by the inhalation of culture may arise anywhere. Smith and Harrell Jr (1948) reported six cases of laboratory infection five of them with sub clinical manifestations and one which proved fatal. Varro (1948) reported a case which occurred in England.

### Etiology

Two points appear to be important in an exact conception of the etiology of coccidioidomycosis—

1 This highly infectious disease is not contagious and patient having one or other form of the disease do not transmit it. This essential fact is in no way invalidated by the fact that laboratory animals may possibly be infected from patient sputum. Rosenthal and Poutien (1946 191) have in fact successfully inoculated the parasitic form of *Coccidioides immitis* by sufflating the trachea of *Cuniculus* with patient sputum and scraping from coccidioidomycotic granuloma. It is noteworthy that the inoculating material kept at 1°C for 110 days retained its infective power. In spite of the conclusion of the workers who believe that coccidioidomycosis must be regarded as a contagious disease until the

contrary has been proved the absence of any known case of interhuman contagion points conclusively to the non-contagious nature of coccidioidomycosis.

It is known that dust from the soil is an important factor of infection if not the only one. This fact emerges from geographical consideration, from periodic epidemiology and from experimentation.

### A. Geographical Considerations

Coccidioidomycosis is a disease of the desert regions of the south western United States. Smith, Beard, Whiting and Rosenberger (1946) have shown that in the northern part the annual rate of infection is only 0.5 per cent whereas it is 20 to 25 per cent in the south. This clearly established the possibility of a causal relationship between the sandy nature of the soil and the development of the disease.

### B. Epidemiological Considerations

These have arisen comparatively recently and are based essentially on the mass experience which resulted from the installation during the 1940-41 war of an field in the south west of the United States. In 1940 Smith had already demonstrated that the disease is purely periodic that it reaches its maximum during the dry seasons of summer and autumn when work goes on in the field, and had concluded that transmission of the disease takes place as dust. Eventually Smith, Beard, Rosenberger and Whiting (1946) by means of cutaneous tests with coccidioidin demonstrated that the number of new cases could be reduced by diminishing the formation of dust by the development of meadows, by the tarring of roads or by the dispersion of oil. Smith *et al* believe that dust blown by the wind distributes the infectious spores and that infection occurs through the respiratory organs. They consider that rain in winter is favourable to the vegetation on which *Coccidioides immitis* is developed, fact yet not proved and that in summer it combats infection by diminishing the dust.

### C. Experimentation

In 1932 Stewart and Meyer for the first time isolated *C. immitis* from the soil in Delano, a place near which four cases of progressive coccidioidomycosis had been reported. In 1941 Davis, Smith and Smith isolated the parasite from the soil at San Benito, California. In 1941 Emmons isolated *Coccidioides immitis* five times from 170 samples of earth collected in the region of San Carlos, Arizona. According to Emmons (1947) the technique for isolating *C. immitis* from the soil is as follows. The soil is first emulsified in a 30 per cent solution of sodium chloride shaken, then the large particles which accumulate at the surface are removed. It is allowed to decant for an hour when the supernatant liquid is collected and diluted to the sodium chloride concentration of physiological serum. This is then centrifuged and cultured, or else the sediment

is used for inoculation. In practice the guinea pig gives the best result for inoculation.

Thus a number of investigations have demonstrated the existence of *C. immitis* in the soil and explain the infectious power of dust. However there still remain the questions of how the organism happens to be in the soil whether it stays there and whether it develops there. Some very stimulating new data has resulted from important studies undertaken by Emmons and Ashburn (1941). Emmons carried out his observations at the San Carlos Indian Reservation, Arizona, a region in which coccidioidomycosis was unknown but where Aronson, Saylor and Parr (1941) had obtained a positive cutaneous reaction to coccidioidin from more than 90 per cent of the Indian school children. This observation had appeared to be so curious to Aronson and his co-workers that Aronson and Callender had followed up with a test upon New York children at the same time (1941) using the same antigen and had obtained a completely negative result.

In the same region of San Carlos, Emmons caught 203 wild rodents and was able to record that 15 per cent of 14 mice (pocket mice i.e. *Perognathus baileyi*, *P. penicillatus*, *P. intermedius*) and 1 per cent of 29 rats (hangaroo rat i.e. *Dipodomys deserti*) were infected by *Coccidioides immitis*. This organism produces in these rodents a pneumonia characterized by nodules distributed in the peripheral rather than in the central parenchyma and these nodules may be calcified. A curious fact is that 113 captured specimens of *Peromyscus eremicus* showed no sign of spontaneous infection by *C. immitis* though this animal is very sensitive to the experimental inoculation of the disease.

Besides *C. immitis*, Emmons isolated another fungus known to the genus *Haploporangium* Thaxter which he called *Haploporangium parvum*. This new organism produces microscopic granules in rodents of the genera *Perognathus* (69 per cent of 14), *Dipodomys*, *Citellus* and others.

From *Haploporangium parvum*, Emmons was able to prepare haplosporidin which gave 29 positive reactions out of 31 individuals reacting positively to coccidioidin. This interesting pathogen will again be referred to when dealing with haplomycosis.

Certain hypotheses emerge from Emmons's observations and an obvious first question is whether though *Haploporangium parvum* has not yet been isolated from man, this organism is not responsible for a certain number of positive coccidioidin tests. In fact it is easy to suppose that *H. parvum* which causes minute lesions in rodent may be able to produce inconspicuous disease in man. What is more in overlooking the existence of *C. immitis* and *H. parvum* in rodent, it is tempting to speculate upon the existence of an animal reservoir. However it is still obscure whether like man these animals are merely susceptible or whether they are indeed essential for the maintenance of the organism in the soil.

It is noteworthy that *Perognathus* and *Dipodomys* are rodents which

are restricted in their distribution to the desert region of the southwestern United States where *Peromyscus* which is not in nature infected by *C. muris* spread in northern regions of America. A *Peromyscus* under laboratory conditions is rapidly killed when infected whilst *Perognathus* and *Dipodomys* are merely chronically affected it may be wondered whether the role of *Peromyscus* is not limited by its susceptibility to *Coccidioides muris*.

Thus several important points remain to be elucidated especially (i) the exact role of the soil in maintaining the infection and (ii) the possible intervention in man of *Histoplasma capsulatum* as an agent of false reactions to coccidioidomycosis. The possibility immediately suggests itself of using this pathogen as an immunizing agent against coccidioidomycosis.

### Pathogenic Agent

The mycological study of coccidioidomycosis is simplified by the fact that only one pathogenic agent for it is known namely *Coccidioides muris* Irford and C. Christ 1896.

The genus *Coccidioides* at present represented by only one species has synonyms—

<i>Poaefusa</i> Canton 1894	<i>Cedricium</i> (pro parte) <i>muris</i> Baical
<i>Ondium</i> <i>arv.</i> Ophuls 1901 non Link	1911 non Link
Link	<i>Scopulariopsis</i> (pro parte) <i>muris</i>
<i>Blasiosporium</i> <i>muris</i> Hartmann 1912(?)	Ota 1924 non Raimet
<i>Mycoderma</i> (pro parte) <i>muris</i>	<i>Climacopora</i> <i>muris</i> Castellani and
Brumpt 1913 non Persoon	Iacono 1913 non Berkeley and
<i>Blasiosporium</i> Castellani 1926	Curtis
<i>Islandococcidioides</i> Fonseca 1924	

The species synonyms are numerous but unimportant since the binomial *Coccidioides muris* is the only one used in recent publication they are—

<i>Coccidioides pyogenes</i> Rixford and C. Christ 1896	<i>Scopulariopsis mexicana</i> Ota 1924
<i>Poaefusa enteriformis</i> Canton 1894	<i>Cedricium dermatitidis</i> Baical
<i>Ondium</i> <i>proleptoides</i> Ophuls 1901	1911
<i>Ondium pyogenes</i> Ophuls 1901	<i>Coccidioides enteriformis</i> Moore 1912
<i>Ondium muris</i> Verduin 1907	<i>Cedricium muris</i> Agostini 1913
<i>Blasiosporium</i> <i>muris</i> Hartmann 1912(?)	<i>Cedricium Louisaenoides</i> Castellani 1913
<i>Eymosoma muris</i> Vellozo and Fernandez 1918	<i>Climacopora metaxopora</i> Castellani 1913
<i>Mycoderma muris</i> Brumpt 1913	<i>Coccidioides muris</i> <i>ar. typicus</i>
<i>Blasiosporium</i> <i>muris</i> Castellani 1926	Ciferri and Redaelli 1936
<i>Islandococcidioides muris</i> Marzani and Fonseca 1924	<i>Coccidioides muris</i> var <i>pyogenes</i>
	Ciferri and Redaelli 1936
	<i>Coccidioides muris</i> <i>ar. melanogriseus</i>
	Ciferri and Redaelli 1936

This parasitic fungus has the curious distinction of having been first described in Argentina where it is exceptional and of having been mistaken for a coccid by the first observers (Poradja 1897 Wernicke 1897) Rivford and Gilchrist (1896) who named it considered it to be a member of the protista. For this reason the validity of their denomination has been disputed though objections cannot really be supported. Further some would attribute the first description to Stiles (*Coccidioides immitis* Stiles 1896) who had been consulted by Rivford and Gilchrist this is incorrect for Stiles had merely given advice of a general nature. It was not until 1900 that Ophub and Moffith demonstrated the fungal nature of the pathogen by cultural method.

### Parasitic Form of *Coccidioides immitis*

The organism appears in tissues or secretions as circular bodies named spherules or sporangia in which occur a very variable number of small spores called endospores or sporangiospores. Rupture of the sporangial membrane liberates the endospores into the surrounding tissue when they are found free or phagocyted. The endospores are 1 to 4  $\mu$  in diameter and are usually thought to have only one nucleus. They develop into sporangia which at maturity are 20 to 60  $\mu$  in diameter and sometimes reach 80  $\mu$ . Various factors determine the diameter attained by the sporangia such as the strain involved nature of the tissue parasitized and the host species. In mice and guinea pigs they are particularly large. The sporangia approaching maturity generally exhibit a large central vacuole so that in mice for example where this is particularly clear the protoplasm may be reduced to a thin multinucleate layer closely adpressed against the sporangial membrane. This protoplasm is divided by radial and concentric cleavage planes into multinucleate fragments which eventually lead to the formation of uninucleate endospores. If it should happen that fewer protoplasmic cleavages occur the sporangium may be found to contain rounded multinucleate masses instead of a large number of uninucleate endospores.

The wall of the spherule may be 2  $\mu$  thick and usually has a smooth outer surface. It has however been observed to be covered with excrescences and this has led Henrici to speak of actinomycetoid form.

All workers are agreed that the spherules of *C. immitis* do not bud. However Delamater and Weed (1948) have claimed to have seen budding not only in their own isolated strain but also in the material by other workers. This observation must be accepted with extreme caution.

Emmons (1941) showed that the endospore nucleus has the same morphology as characteristic fungal nuclei. It is surrounded by a delicate nuclear membrane and possesses one eccentric nucleolus.

### Culture Morphology Macroscopic

*Coccidioides immitis* grows rapidly on Sabouraud medium. After two days at 37°C slightly elevated circular colonies which are quickly

covered with a whit down which browns on ageing may appear. Often well developed in the centre this down is usually less prominent at the periphery. The under surface of the colonies is dark near the centre. There are somewhat large variation in the aspect of the colonies according to the strain some being able to form a lemon yellow pigment and others remaining membranous and smooth.

### Culture Morphology Microscopic

The vegetative mycelium is composed of segmented hyphae of diameter  $1-4\mu$ . Fumons (194) drew attention to specialized sporophores borne upon hyphae characteristic of young cultures which in his view were typical for *C. immitis*. Lateral branches appear upon the vegetative hyphae of the same width as the upon which they arise they rapidly double their width however and may produce secondary branches. Each of these becomes subdivided into short segments 2 to  $4\mu$  long in which the protoplasm condenses these are the arthrospores or chlamydospores of Fumons. In older cultures chlamydospores appear to occur in various regions but it is probable that the typical sporophores are similarly formed.

Protoplasmic condensation within the arthrospores may occur at the centre or against one of the septa if the protoplasm of two neighbouring arthrospores condenses against common septum the usual symmetry is disturbed. The arthrospores which readily break up in old cultures remain together grouped in pairs or small chains in young cultures.

Baker and Vrak (1941) obtained from old cultures spherules analogous with the tissue forms containing endospores and of diameter not exceeding  $10-20\mu$ . Their occurrence must however be regarded as exceptional.

### Symptomatology

It was not until 1937 that Dickson established that San Joaquin fever and coccidioidal granuloma are of one and the same origin the former being merely a stage of the latter. The same worker proposed the distinction between the primary form of coccidioidomycosis corresponding to San Joaquin fever and the secondary or progressive form which is coccidioidal granuloma.

#### 1 Primary Coccidioidomycosis

This form appears 10 to 14 days after exposure to dust in endemic regions. It is characterized by pulmonary symptoms which are scarcely noticeable cough usually without expectoration pleural pain slight temperature ( $39^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) sthenia anorexia headache night sweating. In the majority of cases normal health is restored in one or two weeks. Sometimes generalized and temporary maculous rash appears. Radiological examination made at this stage reveals in 80 per cent of the cases pulmonary changes which may include—

##### 1. hilar infiltration

2. Infiltration of the pneumonic type in the middle or lower regions of the lungs.

3. Single or multiple nodular lesions chiefly situated in the middle or lower regions. These nodules may disappear or become cyst like cavities with thin partitions which either soon vanish or may persist for several years and become calcified. In nine cases out of ten the cavities are apical and in one eighth of the cases they are apical.

4. More rarely mediastinal and hilar adenopathy occurs.

5. In one fifth of the cases a pleural effusion may be noted.

The form of the cavity associated with pulmonary lesions has given rise to a somewhat abundant literature. According to Smith, Beard and Tailor (1918) these cavities which may be present from the beginning usually disappear after three or four months but are able to persist for as long as ten years. They cannot be regarded as belonging to the progressive form of the disease. Mostly they are well tolerated (as for example in the

case of a soldier rested on account of a lesion of this nature who indulged violently in sport without any prejudice to his recovery) sometimes however they are complicated by hemoptyses or hydropneumothorax (2.6 per cent of the cases). The same authors have observed cavitation in 2 to 8 per cent of hospital cases which fact does not establish the real frequency of pulmonary cavitation for the greater number of patients are ambulatory. On the other hand a mixed occidional and tubercular infection was found in 7 out of 274 cases.

From 2 to 20 days after the beginning of respiratory symptoms allergic manifestations appear in 2 to 5 per cent of the patients. They are either *erythema nodosum* localized particularly in the legs but also in the arm, buttocks, thigh and scalp or *erythema multiforme* localized in the hands, face and neck. Possibly there is coexistence of the two forms. The name Valley Fever was applied to these forms though the whole of the primary form tends to be lumped together under this description. The old appellation Desert Rheumatism arose from the appearance rare though it be of an inflammation of the articulations of the knee and instep. Occasionally a phlyctenular conjunctivitis is found.

In 100 cases of primary occidionism of Willett and Willett (1911) have observed the following clinical manifestations: fever lasting less than a week 50 per cent, thoracic pain 3 per cent, dry cough 61 per cent, sputum blood streaked 31 per cent, articular symptoms 8 per cent, *erythema nodosum* 4 per cent, *erythema multiforme* 1 per cent, malaise 43 per cent, anorexia 30 per cent, loss of weight 27 per cent, skin eruptions 1 per cent.

In 60 per cent of cases exposure to infection does not follow a definite symptom but unnoticed illness develops and recedes itself as a postinfectious reaction to coxibacillina. However not all the experimental infections develop clinically detectable or unapparent illness. Smith, Beard, Roenbergs and Whiting (1916) observed that among various animals 100 individuals (100 per cent) at first reacted negatively to the tuberculin

become primary reactors. Thus we do not know the exact sensitivity of man to *Coccidioides immitis*. But what is certain is that only 1 per 1 000 of those who have had the mild primary form develop the secondary progressive form which is nearly always fatal.

Primary non-pulmonary forms of coccidioidomycosis have been described (Conant *et al.* *Manual of Clinical Mycology* 1947). These cases seem all the more difficult because coccidioidomycosis can develop without symptoms and that moreover it is not yet proved that only those previously having an apparent primary form develop the progressive form.

### 3 Secondary or Progressive Coccidioidomycosis

This form corresponding to the old coccidioidal granuloma appears in 1 per 1 000 of those who have exhibited the primary phase. It is usually fatal. The progressive form appears during the weeks or perhaps months which follow the primary phase. It lasts from few months to a year or more. Symptoms are observed: a light fever, anorexia, asthenia and rapid diminution in weight. The lungs exhibit a very pronounced pulmonary condensation and infiltrations reminiscent of tuberculosis. Bony lesions with the appearance of cysts are found particularly in the ribs and the small bones of the hand and feet. The lymph nodes, joint, skin, subcutaneous tissue, meninges and the brain may be involved. Meningitis complicates the progressive form in 20 per cent of cases.

In contrast with what occurs in South American blastomycosis, lesions of the gastrointestinal tract are exceptional in coccidioidomycosis. Doernling (1949) has, however, recently reported two cases amongst coloured people infected in San Diego.

### Histopathology

There is little information on this subject. As indicated by the name formerly given to the progressive phase of the disease the essential lesion is granuloma. The nodules resulting from the accumulation of these granulomas may abscess or calcify. In all cases the picture is that of a tuberculous lesion at the corresponding site. The only distinction between coccidioidomycosis and tuberculosis is the presence in the former of the characteristic spherules found free or within giant cells.

### Treatment

Symptomatic treatment is effected with the primary form. The presence of cavities within the lungs demand care though usually they respond well. Treatment of the progressive form has up to the present been completely disappointing. No result has been obtained by the use of iodides, sulphonamides, penicillin, gentian violet or specific metals. Jacobson (1932) recommended the use of an extract from *C. immitis* consisting of a mixture of a filtrate from culture and one from macerated



organisms. Injection of this has brought about an improvement and even cure in certain cases.

### Prognosis

Extremely favourable in the primary form; it is very grave in the secondary form which almost invariably terminates fatally within some month, a year or sometimes longer.

### Differential Diagnosis

Diagnosis of coccidioidomycosis must be considered in connection with all patients living in the endemic zones or who have resided there. It is also necessary to remember that the handling of cultures is very dangerous and that all those who work in laboratories where strains of *C. immitis* are kept are susceptible to infection. The three cases in Naples reinforce the possibility of infection outside the endemic regions. Primary coccidioidomycosis may obviously be confused with any of the benign respiratory diseases. The progressive form is reminiscent of a number of diseases too large to enumerate. It can be stated simply that it is capable of presenting the symptomatology of the numerous diseases involving neoplasm or of microbial or fungal origin.

### Diagnosis

Coccidioidomycosis may be diagnosed in four different ways: by microscopic examination, culture, animal inoculation and by cutaneous tests and serology.

#### 1. Examination of the Pathogen in Exudates and Tissues

Pus or sputum, often scarce in the primary form, may be examined between slide and cover slip or in a drop of 10 per cent caustic potash. The same may be carried out with pleural liquid or gastric content. The characteristic cell already described may be found with some difficulty.

According to Jacobson (1949) diagnosis may easily be obtained by diluting pus or sputum with physiological serum between slide and cover slip, then sealing with paraffin. Germination of the pheruk occurs within a few hours and germ tubes appear in all directions. Diagnosis in this manner requires one or two days.

It is of interest that Willet and Weiss (1941) could demonstrate the presence of the parasite by direct examination of sputum in only 24 out of 100 cases, whereas by culture it could be isolated from 84 per cent of the cases.

Section may be stained with iron haematoxylin or Gomori's method.

#### 2. Isolation in Culture

The cultural requirements of *Coccidioides immitis* are simple. Arns, Leao and Cury (1950) showed recently that this fungus is auxotrophic, requiring vitamin B<sub>12</sub> for its development. Thus it may

be easily cultured upon the usual media and also upon synthetic media lacking vitamins. It grows well at laboratory temperatures.

Cultures should be made in tubes rather than petri dishes as the latter entail too much risk of exposure of worker to contamination.

Certain media have been recommended and discouraging the likelihood of contamination, especially for instance that advised by Stanford University—

Ammonium chloride	1 g
Sodium acetate	1 g
Potassium dihydrogen phosphate	0.8 g
Agar	5 g
Water	to make 100 ml

Autoclave 10 minutes at 15 lb pressure and before taking out add 0.04 g of copper sulphate per 100 g of medium. This prevents the development of most bacteria. Smith recommends this medium.

St. Wilhelm (1916) in view of the great tolerance of *C. muris* toward variation of pH (0.1 to 12.15) recommended the following—

Bacto tryptone	0 g
Sodium chloride	5 g
Bacter agar	40 g
Water	to make 1 000 ml

Place in 100 ml flask, autoclave and whilst the medium is still hot add 0.5 ml of normal hydrochloric acid then place in petri dishes. Inoculate copiously (0.5 to 0.5 ml of sputum per petri dish) and incubate at 37°C. From the beginning of growth which occurs in 3 to 4 days remove from the incubator to avoid desiccation.

Wilhelm also recommends the use of 1:2,000 methylene blue or acriflavine at the same dilution in the tryptone agar or together at the same concentration.

For microscopic examination submerge the petri dishes for 10 to 15 minutes in 10 per cent formal. This does not alter the essential morphology.

It is also worth noting that techniques employed with sputum (acid fastness digestion) for the isolation of Koch's bacillus destroy *C. muris*.

Usually the morphology of the colonies and their microscopic examination will establish the identification of the fungi. However in a certain number of cases animal inoculation must be resorted to.

### 8. Inoculation

This can be made from pathological or cultural product. Two animals are normally employed, mice which reach the parasitic phase within 5 or 6 days in intraperitoneal injection and in any case die within 7 to 14 days and guinea pigs which after intratesticular injection develop an orchitis and the aspirated pus obtained towards the fifth day is rich in spherules filled with endospores.

Inoculated chlamydospores whilst undergoing transformation to sporangia may remain attached to one another thus yielding clusters of two or three sporangia which may present abnormal pictures of prolific development or of budding.

#### 4 Cutaneous Tests and Serology

Substances develop in the culture media of *Coccidioides immitis* which when injected into the skin of patients and those recovered from coccidioidomycosis produce a reaction analogous to that which tuberculin gives in those individual made sensitive to Koch's bacillus. The active substances which are probably polypeptides resist autoclaving at 15 lb for 30 minutes. In 24 hours they partially dialyse through Cellophane membranes. The substance in question coccidioidin can be kept indefinitely but is liable to destruction by bacterial contamination.

For the preparation of coccidioidin C. F. Smith recommends culturing several strains of *C. immitis* for two months in the following medium—

Ammonium chloride	g
Asparagine	g
Potassium dihydrogen phosphate	1.11 g
Sodium citrate	0.90 g
Magnesium sulphate	1.5 g
Iron citrate	0.30 g
Glucose (quality cerolose)	10 g
Glycerine	ml
Water	to make 1 000 ml

Each of these substances is dissolved separately in distilled water and they are added in the above order to the asparagine. Complete by dissolving the glucose and glycerine and finally having brought up the volume to 1 litre sterilize at 115°C for 15 minutes. After culturing for two months the filtrate is diluted and 0.1 ml of a 1:1 000 dilution is used for testing. After 48 hours erythema and induration are apparent. Those who do not react are given another test in which the 1:1 000 is replaced by a 1:10 dilution.

Stewart and Kimura (1940) defined the coccidioidin unit (skin unit) as follows. A skin unit is the smallest quantity of coccidioidin which in a 0.1 cc dose produces in sensitive subject in 4 hours an erythema which lasts for 4 hours.

The cutaneous reaction to coccidioidin appears from the 1st day after the first symptom, is 10 days to 6 weeks after infection and persists for years so that when positive the only possible conclusion is that the patient had or has coccidioidomycosis. In serious cases of the progress of the form the reaction may be negative.

Interpretation of the reaction to coccidioidin may be demonstrated in the serum of patients or those who have been cured but usually the precipitum

lesion or within a month or two (Fletcher (F. Smith, B. and Lusk, 1948)).

Complement fixation studies employing coccidioidin as antigen give doubtful or poorly marked results with the benign forms. But rise of titre indicates an aggravation of the condition.

Study of blood sedimentation which increases during the period of invasion and that of dissemination may also be of value. In three out of four of the cases of pulmonary involvement with cavitation there is, on the contrary, a normal sedimentation rate.

Willet and Wiese have not detected the primary form in 10 to 18 per cent of eosinophils during the first week.

### Coccidioidomycosis in Animals

Animals are apparently not subject to the primary form of the disease. The granulomatous form is the one encountered and more often than not diagnosis is made at the post mortem.

Except for rodents the greatest number of cases has been described for horses; the first was reported by Ciltner (1918) at San Diego, California. All the sick animals come from California, Arizona and New Mexico. Lesions in the bronchial ganglia or mediastinum or more rarely pulmonary nodules are found on killing the animal. Inoculation yields only a low percentage of that of *C. immitis*.

Microscopic lesions are those of tubercles but the presence of spherules establishes the diagnosis. Spherules surrounded by eosinophilic cells comparable with a tinomyces reaction have been found especially in cattle.

According to Smith (1948) a case of coccidioidomycosis has been found in a gorilla (*Gorilla beringeri*) and one in an American polecat (*Eras. hyemalis*) at the zoo at San Diego, California.

In the dog coccidioidomycosis resembles the human primary form more closely than the very chronic form in cattle. In the three cases described nodules were found in the lungs, liver, spleen, kidneys and brain. Two of these dogs lived or had lived in endemic zones. The third case is more curious (Phummer, 1941; Radmore, 1941) is of myxomatosis, a matter from Canada which had been mated with a female from California. After having shown disturbances of the central nervous system the dog was accidentally killed. Autopsy revealed pulmonary and cerebral lesions of a tuberculous character but in which the characteristic spherules were found.

With the exception of rodents (see note Fletcher) animals do not appear to play any role in the spread or maintenance of coccidioidomycosis.

### Taxonomy

It is generally agreed with Simmons that *Coccidioides immitis* is a phycomycete. Howell and Hartmann (1911) and later independently Laneyron (1929) were the first to suggest this. The prefix if accepted in the form

presented is due to Fumons who demonstrated a perfect analogy between the formation of sporangiospores within the sporangia of *Ascomyces* and the formation of endospores within the spherules. While admitting that neither porophore nor columella are found in the tissue and that in culture the mycelium is richly segmented Fumons affirms that *C. immitis* is undoubtedly a phycomyces and is more likely to be classed among the ascomycetes than anywhere else. Fumons also invokes the pathological similarity between *C. immitis* and *Haplosporidium parvum* the latter generally being placed in the phycomyces.

The fact must not, however, be ignored that where is the deductions of Fumons were made from the form of the pathogen in the tissues and not in culture the latter is usually the basis of classification and that in any case parasitic forms are almost invariably convergent forms. It may be significant that the tissue forms of *C. immitis* and *H. parvum* are very similar whereas their respective cultural morphologies are very different.

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## Historical

The history of man goes back to the most remote time and precedes that of the Dinorphytes. There is an account in the *Procès de Teignes* by Sibouraud.

Dermatophytes have been known for more than a century, but their detailed study dates from the masterly work of Sabouraud. His recent work has been a stimulus to criticism, but and the effort of his student, no less as of his opponent, has served only to extend its value.

In 1837 whilst studying the cuticle *flavus* Lemak noted that it was made up of mould filament, but did not connect the mould with the disease. In 1840 Schönkuhn of Zürich also did not connect the disease with the plant kingdom.

However it was Grab a Hungarian Jew, exiled in Paris who was the pioneer. From 1910 to 1914 he discovered successively the parasitic that of thrush the first trypanosome in the frog, then the parasite of microsporida later then was called the ectothrix Trichophyton of the beard and finally the endothrix Trichophyton of *teigne barbe* (Sabouraud 1938). Though he described very badly the symptoms of the diseases of which he discovered the parasite in the matter of ring worm he committed only one not blake error. Describing the polar lesion

he makes his parasites grow upwards like hair when they all grow in the opposite direction that has down rich (S. Bournaud 1938) Cruby first work is paper in the *Ann. Académie des Sciences* (1841) in which he describes *sa us* and shows that it can be destroyed by microscopic examination. In the same year he reported the inoculation of the *sa us* fungus into man and animal and that he had at last succeeded in making it grow even on wood (S. Bournaud 1910 p. 1). In 1841 he discovered the trichophytons which Sabouraud later called *Trichophyton microides* and introduced the term porphyphytes (cryptogams of *sa us* mentagrophytes (cryptogams of the mentag.) and phitophytes (cryptogams of throb). Next in 1843 he described and named *Microsporum* now which Sabouraud rediscovered in 1890. Quoting Cruby it is to be noted that the spelling of *microsporum* is not *microsporon* it is often written. I shall call these cryptogams *microsporum* because of the smallness of their spores and in order to commemorate in this new field of pathology the name of the famous academician who by his outstanding researches on *Muscardine* has contributed greatly in directing attention to the parasitic plant which destroys living animal tissues. I propose the name *Microsporum* for the plant organism which constitutes

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*Porrigo decalians*. In 1804 Sabouraud once more found (rub) a work which had been forgotten for half a century and noticed that what he had described in 189 as *Trichophyton microsporum* (sic thus probably the spelling mistake) had fifty years earlier been described by Gruby under the name *Microsporum audouinii*. He immediately rectified his mistake (1891) which was not merely one of bibliography but also one of observation because as Sabouraud himself wrote (1910 p. 6) *Trichophyton microsporum* the *Microsporum audouinii* of Gruby was first described as invagination and filling up the hair with small spores a mistake that Gruby did not make and which was corrected after reading his account. Gruby's series of mycological publications ended in 1844 with an investigation in which he described *Trichophyton endothrix* without naming it. Malin ten in 1845 introduced the neologism *Trichophyton* in a paper translated into German in 1848.

In 1845 Remak published the account of his attempts to grow and inoculate the favus fungus which he named *Achorion schoenleinii*. He stated that he had successfully inoculated himself with the fungus. Remak wrote Sabouraud (1910 pp. 66-7) obtained on an apple a beginning of vegetation of which he gave an unequivocal microscopic drawing. It was not however until 1886 that a series of pure cultures was obtained.

Within the space of four years Gruby had recognized the organism associated with favus and also *Microsporum* and *endothrix* and *ectothrix* *Trichophyton*s. The clinical description which accompanied this mycological work was unfortunately so unprecise that confusion reigned for nearly half a century. Alopecia notably was attributed or not to *Microsporum audouinii* and some claimed that there were versions of it with and others without *Microsporum*. The *Trichophyton*s were no better resolved and Sabouraud was the first to be able to answer two key questions: the first put by Kral of Prague at the Tenth Congress of Medical Sciences at Berlin in 1890 on the plurality of the *achorions*; the other by Magnin in 189 on the plurality of the *trichophyton*.

Sabouraud (1864-1919) (cf. Lançon 1975; Criborakis 1979) was stimulated to study ringworm by Hensner and under the influence of Roux and Duclaux he applied Pasteurian method. In addition he gained experience in the culture of Dermatophyte from Duclaux; he shortly after Cravitz was the first in France (1886) to obtain pure culture of trichophyton and favus; he also gained from the work of V. ruja (188) who besides contributing interesting information on dermatophyte culture was the first to report the external spores which he distinguished from mycelial spores.

In his first work (189) Sabouraud distinguished between the *trichophyton* associated with small spores and that associated with large spores. Further this work established that the latter parasite form did not represent single species but groups of species. He ended the discussions between unicists and pluralist.

In 1894 Sabouraud published through Rueff in Paris *Les Trichophyties humaines* a book containing an atlas and in which he described many species of *Trichophyton* and distinguished clearly the parasitic organism *Microsporum audouinii* which until then he had called *Trichophyton microsporum*. At a recorder at the International Congress London in 1896 he demonstrated by means of cultures and microscopic preparations the plurality of the dermatophytes and established his findings.

Adamson in 1895 described the growth of dermatophytes at the level of the hair papilla going rise to Adamson fringe named after him.

In 1896 Bodin published his work on *teigne londonne* in the horse. This exerted a considerable influence on Sabouraud and from it emerged a clearer if still imperfect understanding of the pleomorphism of the dermatophytes which had until then been considered to be a species of symbiosis. In 1897-04 wrote Sabouraud (*Les Teignes* p. 84) "I was ignorant of the facts of pleomorphism known however to professional mycologists and I had interpreted these facts as a symbiosis in the same culture of two different entities but only one parasite. And many had accepted this theory of commensalism. Bodin in 1896 first brought symbiosis into question in connexion with microsporum of the horse. Together we appreciated the real nature of the facts of pleomorphism. Regarding symbiosis Bodin had indeed written (1896 p. 60) 'This polymorphism is an occurrence so widespread amongst lower fungi that the hypothesis of symbiosis in some cases observed in trichophytic cultures seem to me if not doubtful at least warranting further mycological investigation. Already however some workers such as Hurl had deduced from this polymorphism that all the alleged trichophytic species described as entities were only reversible varieties of one type (Bodin 1896 p. 60).

Duciaux (Sabouraud 1936) was responsible for advising Sabouraud to call pleomorphism the form of mutation which definitely alters the characters of a species.

His work had reached such a stage that Sabouraud owed it to himself to attempt to resolve therapeutic aspects of ringworm. After trying to find a hypothetical scurf toxin he found that thalium acetate used up to 1897 in the treatment of syphilis and cystitis was an automati-  
cism of depilation (Sabouraud 1936) but he soon discontinued its use particularly when in 1904 he discovered epilation by X-ray method which with Nore he was able to apply extensively thanks to the X-ray meter of Sabouraud Nore.

Whitfield in 1908 identified and referred to the dermatophytes what he called dermatophyte infections [*dermatophytoses*] of hand and feet a group recognized by H. Braun in 1890 and four years later he having infected himself accidentally with ringworm he discovered and used upon himself the ointment which bears his name. Anstworth (1931) quotes him as saying "I then rubbed in an ointment of 5 per cent benzocaine and 3 per cent salicylic acids in soft paraffin and coconut oil for three days and it

disappeared. I venture therefore to recommend the use of this ointment in superficial tinea.

In 1910 Sabouraud published through Masson (Paris) that remarkable work *Les Teignes* which is really the third volume of a series devoted to diseases of the scalp.

In 1900 Plito and Nesser isolated trichophyton and demonstrated the reaction to this substance by patients suffering from trichophytia. This was confirmed by Truffi (1914) but developed particularly by Bruno Bloch and his students (1928). The discovery by Margarot and Davis (1926) of the fluorescence under Wood's light of hair infected by *Microsporum* permitted of early diagnosis and easy supervision of the cure as well as the detection of contaminated objects. The classification of Otis and Langeron (1933) and that of Langeron and Malchevitch (1930) based on the cultural morphology of Dermatophytes and the use of natural media brought about the transfer of the bases of dermatophyte classification from parasitism to saprophytism. The principles were again used by Emmons in 1934 to support a classification which became of its simplicity is now probably the most widely employed. This survey would be incomplete without mention of the work of Grigorakis (1935) upon the classification of dermatophytes if only on account of the heated discussions which it evoked (cf. Sabouraud 1934-9).

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

The dermatophyte infection [*dermatophytosis*] is cosmopolitan diseases found in men, women and children without any distinction of race or profession. This statement however requires some qualification.

In type 1 in worm affections of the scalp are usually diagnosed in childhood that cease spontaneously at puberty. This is not however invariable. If left untreated favus contracted during childhood persists for life. Scalp ringworm due to *Trichophyton violaceum* persists beyond puberty without difficulty without however having the longevity of favus. On the other hand rare cases have been reported of the occurrence of scalp ringworm in adults. Feldsher and Fennel (1948) have recently reported the appearance of a scalp ringworm with *Microsporum audouinii* on a woman of 46 having two children also infected with ringworm from the same dermatophyte. Reiff (1949) found a scalp ringworm caused by *M. audouinii* upon a woman during pregnancy. The application of microsporum and common trichophyton and not to suppurated ringworms—kerions—that may be contracted at any age.

The reason for the spontaneous recovery from ringworm at puberty has long been a mystery but recent work by Rothman Smilg and Shapiro (1951) has offered a plausible explanation. The authors have shown that fat obtained by extracting a lust hair with the solvent the growth of *Microsporum audouinii* at minimum concentration for 1 per cent the fungistatic power of the fat extracted from juvenile hair is only

one fifth of this. The fungistatic activity is connected with the fatty acids while cholesterol, neutral fat and the unsaponifiable part have no action. From two batches of 1 kg of adult hair have been extracted 20.3 mg and 3.5 mg of active product respectively. The fatty acids which behave fungicides belong to the aliphatic series between  $C_{10}$  and  $C_{14}$ .

See A curious and hitherto unexplained fact about scalp ringworm is its predominance in boys as compared with girls in the proportion of about three to one. This long known fact was rediscovered by Catanes in North Africa (1933) and by Vanbreuseghem (1950) in Central Africa. In particular Catanes observed for Muslim 8 per cent of favus in girls and 20 per cent in boys. In non-Muslims however the same writer found

per cent in boys and 4.1 per cent in girls—1.4 per cent *Trichophyton* species in boys and 3.7 per cent in girls—but these statistics are for a smaller number of cases. In subsequent work Catanes (1938) found 64 boys suffer from ringworm as compared with 9 girls and noted on that occasion that in the Aures as in other regions of Algeria scalp ringworm has been observed with greater frequency in boys than in girls.

In the Belgian Congo Vanbreuseghem noted that 89 cases of ringworm due to *Schoubrandia longirostris* were distributed among 64 boys and 4 girls. Again of 68 cases due to *Trichophyton ferrugineum* var. *album* 4 were in boys and 23 in girls. *Langeroniopsis soudanica* affected 17 boys and 1 girl. On the other hand 10 boys and 9 girls had ringworm caused by *T. violaceum* and 26 boys and 27 girls by *T. glabrum*.

During the recent ringworm epidemic in the United States Schwartz, Pick, Botwinick, Leibovitz and Frauer (1949) found that in 490 cases caused by *M. audouinii* the ratio of boys to girls was 6:1. Schwartz, Rockwood and Chikbel (1949) in the United States studying 989 cases of scalp ringworm over a period of 6 years (1941–46) noted that 61 per cent of the patients were boys and 39 per cent girls and that *Microsporum audouinii* attacked three times more boys than girls where *M. lanosum* was equally attacked both sexes.

The predominance of ringworm in boys as compared with girls requires the support of important statistics but it appears to be well established. Some attempts have been made to explain these facts. It is said that boys get the hairdressing more often and are more exposed to contagion and again that the more abundant hair of girls protects the skin of the scalp against the implantation of dermatophytes. But these explanations hardly go far enough. Extraction of the hair fat of the hair of boys and girls by the technique of Rothman *et al.* (1945) would possibly be more revealing.

The capacity of certain species of dermatophytes to attack one sex in preference to the other is an insufficiently demonstrated possibility.

Dermatophytes of the feet appear to occur as frequently in men as in women. Schwartz (1947) noted this after examining 1,393 men and 730 women of whom 28 per cent certainly had a mycosis. 34 per cent had

doubtful mycoses and 38 per cent were free from clinical sign. Athlete's foot however seems to acquire real importance with men more often than with women and no doubt this is the reason why the trichophyton reaction is more often positive with men than with women.

3 *Race* At first sight it seems that all races are equally receptive to all the dermatophytes. There are however certain facts which appear to indicate a predilection of certain races for certain dermatophytes or *mycoses*. Catani's observations in North Africa are instructive. He has observed that the proportions of favus and of trichophytia were different in the various populations of Oran. The white natives had 18.1 per cent of favus and 15.4 per cent of trichophytia; the black natives - 9 per cent of favus and 15.4 per cent of trichophytia. He concluded (1937 p. 75) that the proportion of white families contaminated by favus is thus higher than that of negro families; these results agree with what we had observed in the study of the relationship between ringworm and race for all the subjects of the region.

It is not easy to explain these observed facts. It may indeed be a predisposition of certain races towards particular dermatophytes. Again it is possible that a dermatophyte may be incapable of establishing itself in a position already occupied by another, a hypothesis which may derive some support from the relative scarcity of mixed infections.

4 *Profession* Ringworm of animal origin is more usually to be found amongst those who work in contact with animals such as farmers, veterinary surgeons and soldiers who are particularly prone to lupus, sporadic *Trichophyton*. The greater frequency of favus in rural populations has been attributed by some to an animal origin of *Trichophyton schoenleinii* but this fact is far from proved.

Dermatophyte infections of the feet e.g. Athlete's foot are supposed to be more common among those who use swimming pools and shower baths. The occurrence of a greater proportion of Athlete's foot amongst those who indulge in violent exercise seems to be well established. Ajell, Keeney and Brojker (1915) found it on 69.9 per cent of 871 young military recruits. Montgomery and Casper (1914) claim that from 1940 to 1943 the American Navy had to send to hospital 14,068 recruits contaminated with dermatophytes, most of them localized in the inguinal fold and the feet. Muskatblitt (1933) in a comparison of 100 persons selected at random from a dispensary and 11 students found signs of pathological change between the toes of 80 per cent of these 11 subjects. This diagnosis was confirmed by culture or microscopic examination of 4.9 per cent of the students and 98 per cent of the others. Vain attempts have however been made to find dermatophytes in swimming pools and upon the cement and wood of shower baths. Williams (1933-34) made 1400 unsuccessful cultures in a young men's college. Schwartz (1947) showed that in the laboratory it is possible to maintain *Trichophyton gypsum* on wood or cement but he

unable to isolate pathogenic fungi from the floor or cement of shower stalls after several hundreds of workmen had used them. However, Ambroseghem and Willvert (1911) isolated *Epidermophyton floccosum* from the sputum and urine of a patient with *Herpes eczema marginatum*. They showed that the receptacles used were infected mechanically by the patient without his knowledge. It is therefore probable that workmen carry fragments of pathogenic fungi when using a shower. The fact that they are not found does not prove that they have not been carried there.

It would seem that more than one activity must be involved in an environment which naturally favours the spread of the disease such activities being accompanied by a lack of local hygiene even though temporary as in the case of soldiers marching or fighting.

If dermatophyte infections (*dermatophytosis*) are cosmopolitan the same cannot be said for individual dermatophytes. It is clear that whilst certain dermatophytes are cosmopolitan others have a very limited geographical range that every country and region possesses its particular spectrum of dermatophytes and that this spectrum is relatively stable. Thus *Trichophyton solace* or *T. rubrum*, *Epidermophyton floccosum* and *Microspora audouinii* have a world-wide distribution whilst *Trichophyton ferrugineum* or *T. ljungi*, *Langeroniaboucardii* and *Trichophyton concentricum* seem especially to have a more limited geographical range. It is moreover clear that each region—this term is a vague one—has its own dermatophyte flora comprising a particular range of species with certain species predominant. Many examples may be given—

Sabouraud (1910) found 1500 strains of dermatophytes isolated and identified 147 *Microsporum* (human origin (13), *M. audouinii*) and 14 of animal origin (*M. canis*) making a total of 161 microsporida or approximately 3 per cent. The endothrix *Trichophyton*s numbered 10 (*T. crateriforme* 11, *T. acuminatum* 5, *T. violaceum* 30) or 44 per cent. There were 16 strains of neo endothrix, 30 microcoids, 17 megaspores, 3 favus (*Achorion schoenaleia*) and 6 *Epidermophyton* spp. (all *floccosum*).

Forty years later (1950) Deyon and Riabier reporting the dermatophytes isolated at the Saint Louis Hospital Paris analysed 811 cases of tinea as follows: microsporiole ringworm 7 per cent, trichophytiole ringworm 16.3 per cent, small spored ringworm 3 per cent, large spored ringworm 3.2 per cent, favus 0 per cent. Thus they compared with an analysis of 1127 cases obtained between 1930 and 1937: microsporiole ringworm 51 per cent, trichophytiole ringworm 29 per cent, small spored ringworm 1.8 per cent, large spored ringworm 0.6 per cent, favus 0.76 per cent. They noted that the trichophytions (half of them caused by *T. crateriforme* and the other half jointly by *T. acuminatum* and *T. violaceum* which is not very far from Sabouraud's results) are diminishing, but the microsporida in contrast are increasing (3 per cent in 1910, 51 per cent from 1930 to 1937, 57.5 per cent from 1948 to 1950) and that there is a marked increase in ringworm due to *Microsporum canis* (30 per

40 per cent actually 1 per cent in 1930 to 1937 and 9 per cent in the time of Sabouraud). It is to be noted that in Sabouraud's statistics referred to above the animal *Microsporium* due to *M. canis* (a *M. lanosum*) appear in only about 3 per cent of the cases. It is also apparent that there are 8 cases of microsporiosis caused by *M. ferrugineum* upon children from the Far East and that there is an epidemic involving the same species in Jews from Central Europe living at the Central Asylum at Gères some of them having previously lived in Tashkent Prison, Turkestan.

The apparently unique statistics of these French workers emphasize the persistence of the same species in the same places, the variations in percentage of certain species possible over a large number of years and the accidental introduction of certain exotic species.

During their studies of the ringworm of Eastern Scotland from 1946 to 1947 Kinnear and Rogers (1948) noted that most of them were *Microsporium* a a total 813 cases caused by *M. audouinii* they found 8 due to *M. canis* 5 to *T. crateriforme* 1 to *T. sulfureum* 1 to an unidentified endothrix *Trichophyton* 1 to an unidentified ectothrix *Trichophyton* and 2 favus. In this result their almost 100 per cent microsporiosis contrast markedly with the 57.5 per cent of Saint Louis Hospital in 1940 and still more with the 1 per cent of Sabouraud in 1910.

Coudert and Doucet (1950) in a brief account of the ringworm of the Lyon region from 1946 to 1949 pointed out that of 14 cases were *Microsporium* (about 1 per cent) chiefly *M. audouinii* but were misinterpreted ringworms (69 per cent (*T. mentagrophytes* 10 per cent *T. album* 1 per cent *T. roseum*)). 1 were favus (about 3 per cent) and 5 endothrix *Trichophyton*s all caused by *T. violaceum*. Thus even though the picture may have differed appreciably from the Parisian one the species involved were the same and no exotic species were introduced.

Like Coudert and Doucet (1947) have on the other hand noted the frequency with which *T. mentagrophytes* (3 cases out of 5) was found in the south east of France among dermatomycoses of animal origin. The proportion is certainly not met with in areas where *Microsporium* and endothrix are active in the ecology of ringworm of animal origin.

Popoff and Zocharsell (1940) estimate that *T. violaceum* may possibly be 60 per cent of ringworm in Bulgaria and in 1909 Nikolic reported that in 1 observation extending for four years he failed to find a single *Microsporium* and that most of the ringworm infections in humans are due to *T. violaceum*.

In Finland Iittala (1947) after studying 1 dermatologist's infections (all dermatophytes) in man for four years found neither fungi nor microsporia. The endothrix *Trichophyton* (14 strains) were represented mainly by *T. violaceum*. Other species isolated most frequently were *Trichophyton gypsum granulosum* (1 strain) *Epidermophyton agrorum* (flocum) (1 strain) and *Epidermophyton* (14 strains). An investigation of 15 cases and Hare (1940) verified the absence of microsporia and favus in an outbreak

*T. schoenlei* in Finland; however *Achorion* (*Microsporum*) *gypseum* and 1 *galli* var. which we consider to be *Sabouraudii* var. were discovered.

Walker (1950) gave interesting information on dermatophytes isolated in Great Britain and Northern Ireland from June 1946 to September 1949. Out of a total of 473 strains the following were identified: 1433 *Microsporum* *indoon* 544 *M. ca.* 8 *M. gypseum* (1:198), strains of *Microsporum* about 50 per cent; 39 *Trichophyton* *albicans* 42 *T. schoenlei* *T. violaceum* 51 *T. dendroides* 53 *T. mentagrophytes* 11 *T. asteroides* 97 *T. rubrum* 16 unidentified *Trichophyton* *T. quinquiescens* *T. equinum* 4 *T. purpuraceum* 1 *Epidermophyton floccosum*.

Blunk (1951) gave some data upon the dermatophytes of Switzerland but in this comment must be taken into consideration that two thirds of his strain came from dermatophyte infection of the feet. He isolated *Sabouraudii* *indoon* 65 *M. ca.* 5 *M. gypseum* 5 *Trichophyton* *schoenlei* 1 *T. flammula* 56 *T. rubrum* 78 (*T. asteroides* 96 *T. granulosum* 30 *T. asteroides* 9 *Epidermophyton floccosum*).

Lehman, Iphigene and Reumann (1950) isolated out of 170 cases of scalp ringworm, observed in Texas from February 1946 to August 1948 11 *Microsporum* (65 per cent) and 5 *Trichophyton* (30 per cent) as follows: *Microsporum lanosum* (ca.) 90 (53 per cent) *M. indoon* 19 (11 per cent) *M. fulvum* (*gypseum*) 6 (4 per cent) *T. mentagrophytes* 7 (14 per cent) *T. tonsurans* 4 (2 per cent) *T. violaceum* 9 (5 per cent).

Lewis, Hopper and Peis (1946) pointed out that during the ringworm epidemic of 1943 to 1944 in the United States 9 cases out of every 10 were caused by *Microsporum lanosum* whereas before the epidemic *M. indoon* and *M. lanosum* (ca.) were found with equal frequency.

Burke and B. Ingbar (1949) observed in the United States that the following fungus is the cause of mycoses of the glabrous skin on veterans of the second World War—

*T. tonsurans* 900 cases. Isolates: cultures 186 (21 per cent) Fungi isolated 118 *T. gypseum* (63 per cent) 9 *T. rubrum* (31 per cent) 4 *Epidermophyton floccosum* (4 per cent) 6 *Candida albicans* (3 per cent).

*T. tonsurans* and *T. gypseum* were identified in 60 per cent of the cases. *T. tonsurans* from 79 post-traumatic cultures 8 *T. gypseum* 10 *T. rubrum* 1 *F. floccosum* 4 *C. albicans*.

*T. tonsurans* out of 31 post-traumatic cultures 1 *T. rubrum* (3.2 per cent). Out of 10 generalized dermatophyte infections (*dermatophytosis*) 7 *T. rubrum* was isolated 8 times from whites and 1 *T. gypseum* once on a white and once on a black.

In Algeria Catanei (1953) claimed to have observed 220 cases of favus caused by *Achorion schoenlei* and 528 cases of trichophytosis. From 84 per cent of 670 cultures of trichophytic hair he isolated *Trichophyton glabrum* and *T. violaceum*. Several other *Trichophyton*s were also isolated as follows (in order of frequency): *T. crateriforme* *T. fumigatum* *T. ovoides* *T. regularis* *T. cerebriforme* and *T. sulfuratum*. Further he described two new species namely *T. gaurii* (Catanei 1953) and



*T. pruinaceum* (Citanei 1931) Citanei had also isolated 1 *Microsporum audouinii*, 1 *M. tardum* and 2 *Ctenomyces mentagrophytes*.

A further investigation by Citanei (1939) upon ringworm in the French colonies is best summarized by quoting the author. A first investigation of scalp ringworm in the French colonies shows that the parasitic flora of these mycofloras varies greatly with the country. The trichophytosis observed in western and equatorial Africa are caused mainly by *Trichophyton soudanense*. *T. violaceum* is less frequent, some cases are caused by a new species of *Trichophyton* *T. goudii*. The microsporiasis are caused by *Microsporum obscum* which appears to prevail and by *M. audouinii*. In the French Indies the trichophytosis are caused by *T. violaceum* and *T. sulfureum* the first species being the more frequent.

From 4<sup>th</sup> strains of dermatophyte isolated in the Belgian Congo Vanbreuseghem (1940) identified 175 *Trichophyton ferrugineum* (41 per cent) 107 *Sabouraudite langeroni* (3 per cent) 60 *T. glabrum* (19 per cent) 2<sup>nd</sup> *T. violaceum* (8 per cent) 4 *Langeronia soudanensis* (5.5 per cent) 1<sup>st</sup> *T. rubrum* (3 per cent) *Epidermophyton floccosum* (0.5 per cent). The hair lesions showed 68 per cent of microsporiasis and 3 per cent of trichophytosis.

On the other hand Sigler (1947) published an interesting table which is reproduced below with some slight modifications.

DERMATOPHYTES	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
<i>T. violaceum</i>	9	160	9	0	9	1	3	0	1
<i>T. glabrum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>T. acuminatum</i>	1	4	0	0	9	0	0	0	0
<i>T. crateriforme</i>	3	100	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>T. cerebriforme</i>			0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>T. Gypcarum</i>	26	1	1	0	0			112	14
<i>T. roseorum</i>	1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>T. peruvianum</i>		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>T. fufiforme</i>	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>T. curvum</i>	1	1	0	0	16	0	0	0	0
<i>M. faurii</i>			11	00	0	0	0	114	0
<i>M. felis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>M. laniatum</i>	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	118	0
<i>A. arifolius</i>	91	1		13	0	0		1	0
<i>F. q. mal</i>	44		0	0	0		1	0	0
<i>F. terdigit</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>T. purpureum</i>	0	0	0	0	1		0	0	0

Note: A. N. G. = H. K. B. B. m. = H. K. C. = I. K. S. = France  
D. Duncan England F. Bogrows Russia F. - Murel S. = I. K. S. = France  
J. J. H. Lewis New York I. Sigler Jerusalem

Sigler's patients came from Syria, Lebanon, Persia, Iraq, Afghanistan, Yemen, Morocco, Central Asia, and from several European countries.

The above information though incomplete nevertheless permits some conclusions to be drawn—

1. Every region studied has a dermatophyte flora characterized by the predominance of certain species.

The flora is not static from time to time. The variations in the dermatophyte spectrum are not however produced by the appearance of

species hitherto unknown in the region in question. They are caused either by real epidemics such as the recent one in the United States produced by *Microsporum adonis* or result from the operation of unknown factors as is apparent in the ringworm studies carried out in the Saint Louis Hospital during the last half century when the microsporia have acquired a prominence that they lacked in Sabouraud's time.

It is a complete mystery why certain dermatophytic establish themselves in certain regions and not in others. Iitala and Harö (1930) commenting upon the absence of *Microsporum* from Finland suggested that this might be related to climate. They remarked that on two occasions they lost their cultures of *Microsporum* strains. The Finnish workers probably err at this fact. Many mycological centres keep strains of dermatophytes from various countries often as far away without any more difficulty in keeping them alive than is the case with their local strains.

The observations of Duval and Rivaller (1931) on the existence of a source of *Microsporum* (or *T.*) *ferrogriseum* in France supply an interesting contrast of viewpoint. Are zootic dermatophytes likely to spread from this source? We do not think so but it must be hoped that these French workers will continue to follow up their interesting observations.

### Etiology

Human scalp ringworm diseases are usually transmitted in schools hence the name *trichomycosis*. During the recent epidemic caused by *Sabouraudia adonis* American work has demonstrated the possibility of transmission via theatre seats and hand-drawn instruments.

*Microsporum* of animal origin differ clearly from the previous one in that an infected cat or dog is found to be their source. Duval and Gregory (1933) demonstrated the difficulty of diagnosis in the cat which can act as a carrier without any skin illness and the value of Wood's light in the detection of infection in animals. Sabouraud observed 20 cases of circumscribed herpes caused by a family of Siamese cats and produced by *Microsporum felinum* (see).

The lesions and abscesses caused by small and large spored dermatophytes are mostly due to direct contact with an infected animal. Duval, Gregory and Burt (1934) observed 46 cases of suppurated ringworm caused by *T. alb* and *T. gypsum*. All the patients were farmers or cattle merchants.

Human favus caused by *Trichophyton (Achorion) schoenle* occurs mainly in poor families especially in rural areas. In France there are constant sources of favus (Jura, Somme, Châlons). Favus of animal origin arises from contact with infected animals e.g. guinea-poultry.

Current work by Vanhems and Van Brouwer has suggested that the dermatophytes can be cultivated on solid media starting with culture in infected animals to give pathogenic strains. It may well be that certain these statements as to the etiology of the dermatophytes will require considerable modification in the very near future.

*Hebysa herpes marginata* and the dermatophytes of the feet are probably favoured by warmth physical exercise and lack of hygiene even though temporary. The part played by hot water baths and swimming pools in their transmission is very debatable. Spring and summer and a generally hot climate favour their development. Passage from a hot climate to a cold one often results in the spontaneous regression of herpetic clinical signs in the absence of treatment.

### Keratolytic Power of Dermatophytes Parasitism of Hair

It has long been known that the dermatophytes are able to attack keratin. This fact is easily verified by noting in a *Microsporum* or *Trichophyton* preparation on a slide the hair broken a few millimetres from or close to the scalp or again by the examination of a nail attacked by *Trichophyton*.

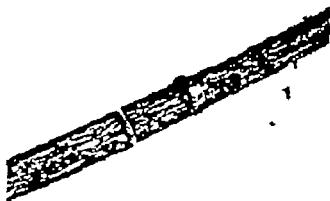


FIG. 1  
Dermatophyte growing on hair from rat  
1.1 of rat organ

*in vitro*. The keratolytic power of dermatophytes may also be studied *in vitro* as well as *in vivo*. This was first demonstrated by Lohr in 1911 and later by Tinea (1930) and Tat (1933).

Despite previous observation in earlier work it was generally thought that dermatophyte growing on hair *in vivo* produced a morphological development identical to that which characterizes them in culture media. This matter has recently (1943) been taken up by Vanhamme-Gibson who cultured a nail and varied ranges of dermatophytes on hair tested *in vitro*. He demonstrated that

1. The morphology of the fungus grown on hair *in vivo* was different from that characteristically of the parasite *in vitro*.

Different methods may be involved in the fungal invasion of the hair *in vitro* namely either by the penetration of perforating hyphae or

by the progress of distention of the hair from the cortex toward the centre.

1 The breakdown of keratin can be observed not only upon human but also upon the most varied animal hairs well on fatters.

4 The dermatophyte is the only fungus able to attack hair in this way.

This provides a means of facilitating the diagnosis of dermatophyte.

Vanbreuseghem thus established that there is a contrast between the development of dermatophyte in the parent and prophyt states respectively.

Those who first studied the ringworm from Crabs onwards directed their effort towards understanding the disposition of the parasite organisms within and around the hair. The clear descriptions of Saboraud of the development of modern workers has simplified many matters which must have been complicated for the earlier workers. A instance of a controversial question Saboraud himself was keenly aware of the spore sheath of *Microsporum*. Crabs who had previously noted it had given specific recognition to *Microsporum* when whereas Saboraud long regarded the organism in question as *Trichophyton microsporum* not knowing its distinctive morphology of structure.

Most of the current knowledge of the mechanism of the infection of the hair is due to the work of Saboraud and to certain English workers of which that of Adamson (1890) is the most important. There is no better description of the mechanism of the penetration of the dermatophyte into the hair than that of Saboraud given in a summarized form in 1928 (p. 100). Imagine one of these propagules cast upon healthy skin and about to develop there. The mother cell will surround itself with many branched divisions like the spokes of a wheel the resultant epidermal lesion will thus be orbicular and the rim of the wheel

will be the region of rapid multiplication of the parasite. These filaments penetrating the corneal layer encounter the follicular orifice into which the corneal epidermis is inflected follows and thus descends into the follicle. However below the infundibulum in the corneal palerms is melanin, so the parasite deprived of its only medium for growth cannot advance further. But it is close to the hair which occupies the follicle and the hair is keratinized almost to its base at the neck of the polar bulb. The parasite then lifts the cuticle of the hair (the cells of which are imbricated one upon another like tiles but in the opposite direction to that of the growth of the hair) so that the nearest cell covers the former one and thus presents a possible way of penetration to the descending dermatophyte and penetrates it. If going in added it in depth with its filaments it goes down to the level where the hair is no longer keratinized beyond which it is no longer able to descend. (These terminal branches of the parasite make up what has been called Adamson fringe which is the real zone of growth of the dermatophyte.) The bulb of the hair which is never imbricated does not react to the parasite and continues its function.

and so does the pilar papilla the hair therefore continues to grow as if it were not infected and so far as the hair is keratinized up to the level of the neck of the pilar bulb the parasite continues to invade it.

With this noteworthy account in mind the various types of parasite hair invasion will be described.

*A. Favus.* At the same time as it invades the hair the organism usually accumulates around itself an aggregation of mycelium included in



FIG. 1.  
Dissection of hair by dermatophyte fungus on epidermis  
of the hair from the periphery toward the entire

the epidermis that it compresses beneath and around itself this is the favic scutula. The hair is invaded by mycelial filament which are divided into fairly long segments. Here and there secondary filamentary mycelium from primary filament divide several times in succession giving rise to the configuration known as the favic tarsus or chamber. These are polygonal aggregations composed of 8 to 1 very short mycelial fragments disposed in a manner which vaguely resembles that of the tarsus of an insect.

*B. Microsporum.* The hair is surrounded by a sheath of mycelium disposed without definite order in a mosaic. Within the hair itself are found mycelial filaments which are usually barely visible and descending toward the bulb. The spores result from the fragmentation of the mycelial filament into very small elements. The formation of the sheath of peripilar spores is certainly at first independent of the development of intrapilar mycelium. It is due to the subdivision of the mycelial

filament going down into the pulvry infundibulum between the hair and the epidermal cells. But Sabouraud admits (1910 p 199) that this sheath can be renewed and continued by the terminal ramifications of the intrapilary mycelium being able to graze the surface of the cuticle and end on there with a lot of spores more or less close to one another.

*C. Trichophyton*. The mycelial filament to invade the hair completely and reduce it to very small elements of square or oblong section becoming progressively rounded and forming regular chain. The spores are larger than those found in the sheath of the *Microsporum*. It was whilst studying the *Trichophyton* which produce this microsporic picture that Sabouraud coined the term *endothrix* of which the meaning has subsequently not always been fully appreciated moreover it has been used both as noun and an adjective. In the first case it denotes dermatophytes which produce a pilous lesion similar to that just described. Sabouraud (*Les Teignes* 1910 p 263) is worth quoting. As early as 1893 I noticed (later than Gruby but without having read his text) that in the common *teigne tonsurante* the *Trichophyton* had *filaments poreux en chaine et n'etant pas recouverts d'une cuticule* and for that reason I gave them the name *Trichophyton endothrix*. Thus the word *endothrix* should only be used to denote that particular condition of the hair when it is filled with spores.

*D. Microles*. The dermatophyte now called *Ctenomyces* but which Sabouraud called microscidal *Trichophyton* invade the hair by means of filaments which are usually barely visible also as in the case of the *Microsporum* they envelop the hair with a sheath of small spores in little chains. Sabouraud (*Les Teignes* 1910 p 273) recognized a particular sheath comprising three elements—

- Very fine (3 to 4  $\mu$ ) shelled spores
- $\beta$ —Pores of spores like strings of beads
- $\gamma$ —Delicate (1  $\mu$ ) non segmented mycelia float off in the preparation in the form of fragments 1.5–2.0  $\mu$  long

The type of lesion thus constituted was called *ectothrix* by Sabouraud though this term is more usually applied to the form described below.

*F. Ectothrix*. In this parasitic type filament which may be reduced to large spores are found in the hair further they are surrounded by filament reduced into small chain of very large spores. Confusion is possible neither with the microscides nor with the microsporum and obviously not with the picture of false or *endothrix trichophyton*. Again quoting Sabouraud (*Les Teignes* 1910 p 263) I noticed whilst examining trichophytoses of the beard that the hair was not only invaded but also surrounded by mycelial filament and I named trichophytoses of this type trichophytoses *ectothrix*. This further quotation also explains much subsequent misunderstanding (note loc cit p 263). The definition

of ectothrix trichophyton has led to much confusion which I noted from the first especially at the London Congress. Most of the English workers believed that I considered the ectothrix to surround the hair without invading it and so Fox and Blaxall were able to write "Later we carehe appear to demonstrate that hair itself may be more profoundly implicated than Sabouraud at first observed and hence the term endo ect thrix (An inquiry etc p. ) And thus: how the term endo ectothrix whose definition is exactly the one I had given to the term ectothrix was created."

*Ecto endothrix.* Sabouraud had thus named type of polar lesion characterized by the occurrence of spores in regular chain within the hair and with some filaments in an external position. The *ecto endothrix trichophyton* he wrote (*Le Teigne* 1910 p. 70) "are certainly true endothrix for if a search is made amongst diseased hair one can invariably find some presenting the typical aspect of the real endothrix. But amongst these hairs a certain number one out of four are found which exhibit around the hair some striped filament between the hair and the follicle or attached to the surface of the hair. This is symptomatic of the commencement of a trichophyton only when the real endothrix trichophyton is involved this invading period is so short that its detection necessitate careful observation whereas when it concerns the trichophyton of which I speak it is prolonged to the point that it is difficult not to observe it."

Again Sabouraud wrote on p. 83 "Thus the various trichophytes may occur a four microspor type in human hair."

- I True endothrix
- II Young endothrix (young trichophyton)
- III The ectothrix microspor
- IV The microd

However in *Ann. II. Traitg. Dermatologique* (1910) Sabouraud abandoned *ecto endothrix* and dealt only with *ectothrix* amongst which he distinguished besides the microd certain parasites that appear to be of animal origin and that not only invade the hair after the manner of the endothrix type but also form around the hair a sheath of hyaline material. This is the *ectothrix* group and amongst the *ectothrix* type of animal origin there is a large group of species meriting separate description because of the enormous size of their spore structure and which has been called *macrospora* (p. 105).

The following conclusion is clearly to be drawn from all the types can be recognized in hair in a fully keratinized state a full

I The intrajul filamentous type represented by hair in the type of the agent of human favus namely *Trichophyton schoenleinii*.

II The microspore type characterized by not only clear intrapapillary filament and by a sheath of small spores in monolayer. Subordinated to (*Microsporum*) *aufway*

III The true trichophyton or endothrix type the hair is filled with spores in regular rows or chains. At the mature stage, if the infection there



FIG. 1

Endothrix type on wood 1 2 clasp for 1 (1) HV 1 (18)  
The hair is infected in the basal 1 (top) end of the hair 1 (1) for  
the intrapapillary area (400)

are no mycelial or spore bearing structure outside the hair. This type of lesion is produced by *Trichophyton tonsurans*.

IV In the ecto-endothrix type filaments are found within the hair and according to the particular dermatophyte responsible for the lesion a sheath of small or large spores is found outside the hair. In certain cases intrapapillary spores may also be found. This fourth group appears to be confused and deserves complementary study. In particular such study should determine whether for a given species the parasitic type is constant or variable. In the case of the megaspores varying descriptions have undoubtedly been given by writers whose capacities for accurate observation are unquestioned.



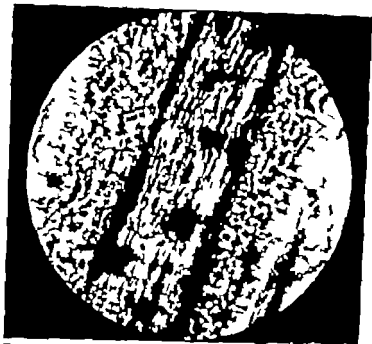


FIG 10 Hair of guinea pig parasitized by *Trichostrongylus axei* (strain I V 23-24) Ectothrix lesion near polar follicle Mounted in chloral lactophenol



FIG 11 Hair of guinea pig parasitized by *Trichostrongylus axei* (strain 27) Ectothrix lesion near polar follicle from 1st larval stage Mounted in chloral lactophenol

### Classification of the Dermatophytes

Various classifications of the dermatophytes have been proposed. Three are given below: (i) that of Sabouraud the oldest based essentially upon the characteristic features of hair invasion by dermatophytes. Very much appreciated by clinical physicians especially dermatologists it still commands wide attention. (ii) that of Emmons is based on the characters of dermatophytes in culture. It is simple includes only the genera *Trichophyton*, *Microsporum* and *Epidermophyton* and is widely used in the English speaking world. and (iii) the classification of Langeron and Vlochevitch slightly modified is based like that of Emmons upon the morphology of dermatophytes in culture and many European and South American report use it.

#### 1. Sabouraud's Classification of the Dermatophytes

This is summarized in the table taken from Sabouraud. *Les Teignes* and is essentially based upon the characteristics of the polar lesion. For example all dermatophytes which invade hair by surrounding it with a sheath of spores in the form of mosaics are classed among the microsporum. This can in any case be produced by microsporum of the human type—these are pure microsporum—or by microsporum of animal origin—the neo microsporum. This first group is the most coherent even though the morphology in culture of the microsporum of animal origin differs greatly from that of the microsporum of human origin these differences are however quantitative and not qualitative the microsporum of animal origin forming a very great number of macroconidial and microconidial types whereas these reproductive forms are rare if not absent in the human microsporum.

The second group that of the trichophyton is more complex. Sabouraud divides them into endothrix and ectothrix. The endothrix types are in turn subdivided into pure endothrix and neo endothrix the ectothrix into microdes and megaspores. The significance of these various terms has already been explained. The coherence of this group is much less than that of the microsporum and if Sabouraud's basic feature of the classification i.e. the polar lesion is adhered to it is indeed hard to decide what resolves the grouping of these dermatophytes. The hair invaded by macrod or a megaspore differs completely from that invaded by a pure endothrix. The third group that of the choronia was based essentially on the formation of the acrotale and comprised parasites of animal origin together with one human parasite namely *Achorion schoenleii*. It is to be recognized that towards the end of his life Sabouraud attached less importance to this small group. He had perhaps more than some of his students adhered to the idea of a botanical classification of the dermatophytes. Indeed he wrote (*Revue Pratique Dermatologique* 1896 p. 120). Cases of favus of animal origin are rarely observed on man. Though scarce they have great interest for they will undoubtedly lead to a clarification of the subject especially in relation to the unity of



placed under new conditions where they can undergo full morphological development may produce very different form. Examination of certain members of the *Achorion* group renders this very obvious. The type species of the group *Achorion achor* L.: has with good reason been classified amongst the trichophytes. *Achorion guineense* one of the agents causing mouse fur is also a trichophyte (Vanbreuseghem 1930). *Achorion gallinarum* and *A. gypseum* are dermatophytes which fall naturally into *Sabouraudia* (= *Microsporum*) of which they have all the hair territories. Sabouraud's opinion as to the systematic position of the latter has already been given. Putting the other groups it will be apparent that *Trichophyton ferrugineum* which causes crop disease of hair should according to Sabouraud be placed with the *Microsporum* and that *Langeronia tonsa* which causes an endothrix ringworm should by the view of the same author be a *Trichophyton*. However morphological studies which we have carried out on this pathogen have led us to regard it as the type of new genus (Vanbreuseghem 1930).

But perhaps the gravest objection to Sabouraud's classification is that by its very simplicity it runs counter to information on the morphology of dermatophytes in culture. It is too easy to imagine all the relevant data to be at hand once culture has been obtained from a polar lesion of microspore or endothrix type. This objection it must be said is not directed against the proponent of the classification. Sabouraud always aimed at perfect knowledge of the morphology of the dermatophytes which he described and left us the best possible figure of their cultural morphology.

In conclusion Sabouraud's classification takes many facts into account but not all. In our view it has a serious error. We consider that the classification of the dermatophytes must rest on the morphology in the media where they can develop fully and not on the morphology of the parasitic phase which because of convergent phenomena is misleading. For a full understanding it is to be added that if Sabouraud chose parasitic morphology as basis upon which to establish his three great groups of dermatophytes he chose the morphology of the saprophytic phase to establish the species.

## 2. Emmons's Classification of the Dermatophytes

The classification proposed by Emmons (1934) is based upon the morphology of the dermatophytes in culture. It is accepted by a considerable number of experts mostly Anglo-Saxon and we must succumb apart from the meticulous observations upon which it rests to its simplicity and its respect for the essential feature of Sabouraud's nomenclature. This classification writes Emmons is proposed in the hope that following the lines of natural relationship it will stabilize the nomenclature of the dermatophytes if it is accepted. It goes back to three ancient genera. (Emmons wrote at a time when bad impression had been created by the revolutionary nomenclature proposed by Ota and

Langeron 1923 and by Criborakis 19 ) a mycological definition which up to a certain point seems to have been the intention of the creators of these names. This classification has the great merit of simplicity and therein lies the chief reason for its enormous success. However simplification is not everything and does not always lead to progress.

The following is a summary of Emmons's classification as he himself put it forward.

*Dermatophytes* These fungi are Hyphomycetes. They are usually white but in some species show some shade of yellow, pink, violet or brown. They reproduce by arthrospores, by chlamydospores, by single celled conidia which are subspherical or pear shaped to clavate with broad bases, the base often being surrounded by a collar marking the point of attachment of the spore borne singly along the hyphae or in clusters on specialized conidiophores, aciculate or stipitate, sometimes forming chains of two or three spores and measuring 5 to 4 by 3 to 6 microns. They also reproduce by macroconidia which are clavate to spindle shaped or occasionally one celled but usually have from one to many cross walls and measure up to 40 by 150 microns in some species. They grow in the skin and its appendages where they are present only as mycelia or arthrospores.

*Trichophyton* Valmsten 1841. The type species is *T. tonsurans* Valmsten 1845. The mycelium is usually white but in some species it is yellow, pink, violet or brown. The organisms reproduce in culture principally by conidia. The macroconidia are clavate, thin walled and sometimes wanting.

*Epidermophyton* Sabouraud 1907 (not Lang 1879 or Magnus 1891). The type species is *Epidermophyton inguinale* Sabouraud 1907 which corresponds to *Epidermophyton floccosum* (Harz 1870) Langeron and Mikoevitch. The mycelium is usually yellow, the organisms reproduce in culture by chlamydospores and by oval to egg shaped smooth thick walled macroconidia.

*Microsporum* Gruby 1843. The type species is *M. audouinii* Gruby 1843. The mycelium is usually from white to brown, the organisms reproduce in culture principally by spindle shaped thick walled microconidia and clavate conidia. The former may be abortive as well as in some species.

Following this series of short definitions certain dermatophytes are listed under the three genera adopted by Emmons. The genus *Trichophyton* includes all the small spored trichophyton (the microd) of Sabouraud under a single binomial *Trichophyton microsporum*.

Without going into all possible discussion of synonymy one is bound to wonder whether Emmons is right to include under a single genus both the classical and the microscidal trichophytoms of the same author Sabouraud. We are against this for the following reasons—

(a) The microscids form a well defined biological group. They are above all agent of the suppurating ringworms represented by kerions and sycoms. It is conceded that this fact alone must not be used to assign the microscids to a separate group but it is fundamental taxonomic character.

(b) The microscid produce under cultural conditions morphological elements such as spirals, pectinate hyphae and antler hyphae. Even though these can appear in other genera and microsporums cultured in natural media can easily produce them it is nevertheless true to say that the microscids are the only ones to produce them with particular abundance on the usual media.

(c) The macroconidia (*abovries*) of microscids have particular characteristics—

(i) They are very generally spherical and not pyriform or laete like those of trichophytoms.

(ii) They are disposed in clusters (*en grappe*). These are characteristic only of microscids and are absent from other dermatophytes though occasionally an early stage of their development may be observed in certain strains of *Trichophyton rubrum*.

(d) The macroconidia (*macroconidia*) of microscids are quite different from those of trichophytoms. Emmons writes of the macroconidia of *Trichophyton mentagrophyte*. The macroconidium of *T. mentagrophyte* is clavate spore which may be as much as twice the diameter of the branch bearing it and it may be of nearly uniform diameter or somewhat inflated toward the distal end. It may have one or several septums. The walls are thin and hyaline. In some strains it is easy to find gradations between large clavate conidia and small macroconidia. The macroconidia suggest differentiated chlamydospores somewhat more than the conidia. In an occasional strain they are hardly more than hyphal tips which are differentiated by becoming several celled and are then detached bodily from the parent hypha. They vary greatly in size. Those which are one or twocelled may be 4 by 15 microns while the larger ones may reach 6 by 60 microns in size. In our view this description would apply to the macroconidia of *Trichophyton axys* Sabouraud (except for the microscids) and *axys* Langeron and Vukobrevitch which are usually rare and poorly developed. *Trichophyton rubrum* is however an exception to the rule. This dermatophyte the study of which ought to be entirely repeated and the taxonomy of which is consequently in some doubt.



They are much better developed on our (natural) media than on classical media where they most often present an ill formed appearance either having the shape of short branched macroconidia with the aspect of blastospores or resembling the filamentous spore shaped or drawn out telomorph telomeres.

We believe that Hammons has no justification on the basis of similarity of the morphology of the macroconidia for putting the trichophytons into the same genus as the anamorphic microconidia of Sabouraud.

(2) There is yet further morphological difference between *Chromomyces* and *Trichophyton* arising from the asexual mycelium which produces the reproductive structures. In the trichophytons the macroconidia arise from asexual filaments as in the *Acholeium* type. It is exceptional to find macroconidia in any number arising on a lateral branch at right angle to the asexual filament. On the other hand it is usual in the chromomyces or microconidia to encounter the lateral branch at right angles to the asexual filament and this branching system yields the Lorrain-Crose formation bearing the clusters of macroconidia so characteristic of the species of this group. Again *T. rubrum* occupies an intermediate position between the chromomyces and the trichophytons its asexual hyphae quite frequently forming Lorrain-Crose which bear small clusters of macroconidia (cf. 10).

For the foregoing reasons we consider it undesirable to adopt the classification of the American mycologist. Though based on consideration which merit approval in its attempts at simplification it confuses certain features of dermatophyte morphology which are valuable in classification.

Finally it is suggested that adherent to Hammons' division to compare Fig. 14 of Corbett's work (1918) on the filamentous trichophyton with Fig. 5 of that of Corbett and Muechling (1919) on a variety of *Trichophyton mentagrophytes*. It is impossible to disregard the considerable differences between the macroconidia and even the microconidia of the two species and the necessity in our view to assign these two dermatophytes to different genera *Trichophyton* and *Chromomyces* and not to one genus as is done by these authors.

### 3 Langeron, Mikolchevitch and Vanbreuseghem's Classification of the Dermatophytes

It is not proposed to deal separately with the classification of Langeron and Mikolchevitch as given by them in 1930 for it only differs from the present one in the inclusion by Vanbreuseghem of the genus *Langeron* in (1930). Certain new details were introduced in the first edition of *M. Langeron. Précis d'Urologie*. This classification like that of Hammons





From the ...  
 The ...  
 ... of ...



From the ...  
 ...  
 ...

is based upon the morphology of the dermatophytes in the saprophytic condition i.e. in culture<sup>1</sup>

(a) *Ctenomyces* Exlam 1880 Type *Ct mentagrophytes* (Ch Robin 1877) This genus includes the macrod trichophyton of Sabouraud and correspond to the single species that Fumous classifies amongst the trichophyton as *T mentagrophyte*. It is characterized by microconidia

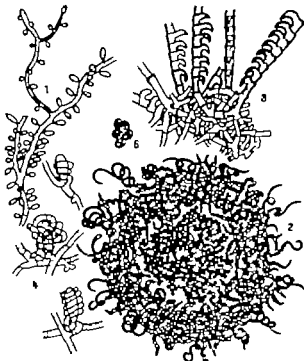


FIG. 1

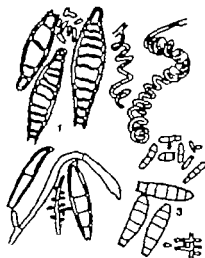
*Ct. mentagrophytes* 1 Microconidiophore 2 Section of main  
pedicel with loosely woven hyphae 3 Group of torulose perinate and  
beaked hyphae and in the center of macroconidia and ascus 4  
Mycelium showing perinate hyphae with beaks 5 Beginning of  
perithecial formation (top shaped ascogones with ascogonium forming  
nodular bodies) 6 Group of ascus with ascospores (After Exlam)

Lange on and Miko both have described Sabouraud's macrod by the name *Ctenomyces*. The old German name wrote Lange on in the first edition of the *Pilz des Menschen* p. 81 as *mentagrophytes* to designate the anastomosing trichophyton macrod of Sabouraud and because they exhibit fully the morphology of *Ctenomyces* fully developed healthy conical structures (macroconidia) distal shaped macroconidia with al ornamentation on the form of the beaked spines borne loosely filament with granular contents. The perithecia have not yet been observed but there are the beginnings of fleshy perithecia similar to those of the *Gyromyces* surrounded by a thin and antilevel film. Now press in





(c) *Trichophyton* Malmsten 184 ~~was~~ Langeron and Mikochuritch 1930 ~~see~~ Ota and Langeron 1931 Type *T. tonsurans* Malmsten 184. This group has very little homogeneity and though treating it with respect we do not believe that it will retain its coherence. Vanbreuseghem (1930) has already detached from it a species necessitating in his view the erection of a new genus *Langeronia*. The morphology of *Trichophyton* cultures is very simple. Certain species develop conidia copiously like the *Acididium* type along aerial hyphae. The macroconidia occur in exception



F. 11

Morphology of the *Trichophyton* species 1 macroconidium and microconidium of *T. tonsurans* 2 macroconidium and microconidium of *T. rubrum* 3 hypha of *T. tonsurans* 4 macroconidium of *T. tonsurans* (After C. W. F. Malmsten)

ally cigar or sausage shaped with smooth and thin wall having blunt extremities the base being slightly larger than the filament from which it arises. Those species with glabrous colonies only exceptionally form conidia. Spirals are not seen on ordinary media and only rarely appear upon natural media. Certain species (*T. tonsurans*, *T. rubrum*, *T. violaceum*, *T. rubrum*) produce a white, cottony, felt-like matting by large spores arranged in regular files in the interior of the hair. *Trichophyton ferrugineum* produces a microspore appearing like that caused by the *Sabouraudia* species. *T. quadratum* induces the spontaneous appearance of scutula in mouse and man keeping the hair unaffected. *T. schoenii* is the agent of human favus causing scutula on the hair which it does not break the appearance of filamentous reduced to arthrospores. The ruga-pored fissiforme shows an ectothrix lesion with large spores in small hairs around the hair and certain species (*T. magnus* or *T. roseum* of Sabouraud and *T. rufum*)

produce an endo ectothrix lesion characterized by large intra and extracellular spores.

Identifying the genus is extremely heterogeneous and will undoubtedly be broken up. Various attempts have been made to establish subgenera *Endotrichophyton* Langeron 1911 *Erytrophyton* Sabouraud 1938 and *Vesiculosporium* Sabouraud 1938.

(d) *Langeronia* Vanbreuseghem 1930 Type *L. soudanensis* (Joyeux 1911) Vanbreuseghem. This genus is represented by a single species *L.*

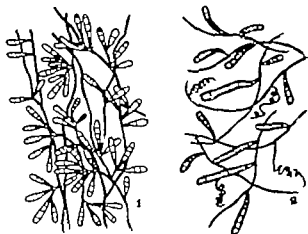


FIG. 6

Morphological details of *T. dermatophytum* (f. sp.) after the original figures of Hux (1970) and Joyeux (1911) after the original figures of Hux (1970). 1 macroconidium on 1 and 2 microconidium on 1 and 2.

*soudanensis* corresponding to the older *Trichophyton soudanense* of Joyeux. The ectothrix mycelium with quite short articulations has marked tendency to form lateral branches growing opposite to the general direction of growth. Upon these primary lateral branches arise secondary lateral ones with the same general characters of the primary ones. The reproductive spores are mostly arthrospores which are easily detached and may give rise in preparations to impressions of false branches. The true conidia are rare and arranged in the *dictyon* manner. The chlamydo spores which may be very abundant in old cultures are intercalary, terminal or lateral. Neither tendrils nor macroconidia are found.

(e) *Epidermophyton* Lang 1870 Ota and Langeron 1913 Type *E. floccosum* Harkn 1870. This genus is only represented by a single species. The reproductive forms are reduced to very numerous club-shaped macroconidia often bunched like bananas. Langeron and Vlochevitch have described tendrils in certain cultures but these organs are very rare. *E. floccosum* does not attack hair.

## THE PRINCIPAL DERMATOPHYTES

I. Genus *Otenomyces*

These comprise two groups—

A. Cypreus group with chalky colonies due to an enormous accumulation of microconidia—

<i>Otenomyces mentagrophytes</i>	Ch Robin 1843
<i>Otenomyces asteroides</i>	Sabouraud 1909
<i>Otenomyces granulosa</i>	Sabouraud 1905
<i>Otenomyces percolor</i>	Sabouraud 1910
<i>Otenomyces interdigitalis</i>	Praetley 1911

B. Nivus group with downy colonies—

<i>Otenomyces radian</i>	Sabouraud 1909
<i>Otenomyces denticulatus</i>	Sabouraud 1910

II. Genus *Sabouraudia*

<i>Sabouraudia audouinii</i>	Cruby 1843
<i>Sabouraudia gypse</i>	Bodin 1907
= <i>S. fulva</i>	Urbancu 1907
<i>Sabouraudia canis</i>	Bodin 1907
= <i>S. felina</i>	Fox and Blaxall 1908
= <i>S. lanosa</i>	Sabouraud 1907
<i>Sabouraudia gallina</i>	Milnes 1881
<i>Sabouraudia langeroni</i>	Vanbreuseghem 1900
<i>Sabouraudia rivalieri</i>	Vanbreuseghem 1901

III. Genus *Trichophyton*

<i>Trichophyton monilia</i>	Milnes 1881
= <i>T. crateriforme</i>	Sabouraud 1907
<i>Trichophyton sabouraudii</i>	Blanchard 1897
= <i>T. acuminatum</i>	Bodin 1907
<i>Trichophyton sulfuratum</i>	Fox 1904
<i>Trichophyton concentricum</i>	R. Blanchard 1897
= <i>Endodermophyton concentricum</i>	Castellani 1911
= <i>T. indicum</i>	Castellani 1911
= <i>T. tropical</i>	Castellani 1914
= <i>T. rugosum</i>	de Formica 1907
<i>Trichophyton quinquellatum</i>	Löffler 1900
<i>Trichophyton violaceum</i>	Bodin 1907
= <i>T. glaucum</i>	Bodin 1910
<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i>	Castellani 1909
= <i>Endodermophyton rubrum</i>	Castellani 1909
= <i>T. p. purpureum</i>	Bang 1910
= <i>T. rubidum</i>	Praetley 1907
= <i>T. lilacolor</i>	de Maattham 1907

= <i>T. pluricolum forme</i>	McCarthy 19
= <i>T. leucorhizum</i>	MacCarthy 19
= <i>T. coccineum</i>	Y. Kato 1938
= <i>T. luteolum</i>	Kawasaki 1941
= <i>T. A</i>	Hodges 1941
= <i>T. B</i>	Hodges 1941
= <i>T. salmoneum</i>	de V. Bo 1941
= <i>T. rubrum</i> var III	F. ju 1941
= <i>F. peract</i>	Cast. Hans 1940
= <i>T. lanigerum</i>	Fujii 1931
= <i>T. apod. n</i>	Kat 1946
= <i>T. arcolat. n</i>	Nelson 1949

*Trichophyton ferrugineum* (Ota 1941)

= *Microsporum ferrugineum* Ot 1941

*Trichophyton schoenleinii* Lebert 1843

= *Achorion schoenleinii*

*Trichophyton album* Sabouraud 1909

*Trichophyton discoides* Sabouraud 1909

*Trichophyton magn. n* I. Blanchard 189

= *T. roseum* Bodin 1904

= *T. roseum* Sabouraud 190

Note. It is necessary to replace the earlier development forms and not species those described in 1936 by Lanjeron and B. (a) under the names *T. m. loricatus*, *T. patell. ju*, *T. truncat*, *T. deliens*, *T. lince*

#### IV. Genus *Langeronia*

*Langeronia sordida* n (J. J. J. 191)

= *Trichophyton sordida* n J. J. J. 191

#### V. Genus *Epidermophyton*

*Epidermophyton floccosum* : Hara 1870

= *E. cruris* Castellani 190

= *E. inguinale* Sabouraud 1907

= *E. clypeiform* McCarthy 19

#### Macroscopic Morphology of the Dermatophytes

It is virtually impossible to give a description of the dermatophytes in a work not devoted entirely to them. Others however have attempted this and profitable reference may be made to Brumpt, *Tricod. et Parm. tologie* and Dodge, *Medical Mycology*. In identifying dermatophytes it is advisable to consult the earliest description if there is any doubt as to the identity of a particular strain isolated. It is also advisable to try to obtain fresh strains of the species in question, better still if possible to send strains for confirmation to the author of the species or to consult a mycologist with great experience of these pathogenic fungi. Unfortunately such authorities are extremely rare. Research workers who



specialize in study of dermatophytes are usually well acquainted with the species in their region and as a general rule hardly so with those of other regions. We have a certain experience in the study of the dermatophyte of Central Africa and have isolated a great many strains of *Trichophyton ferrugineum* of *Langeronia voundensis* and of *Sabouraudites langeroni*. We must confess that not a single week passes without our experiencing some difficulty in classifying one of them. It is easy to imagine the difficulties in the way of anyone who only occasionally meets these species.

The identification of dermatophytes is rendered more difficult mainly for four reasons:

1. There are several systems of classification in existence. This is neither a fundamental difficulty nor in fact very important nor does it apply solely to dermatophytes; it is for instance equally true of mycology, helminthology or entomology. Having made an adequate study of the microscopic morphology of a dermatophytic culture and of the place lesion which it produces—or does not produce—one would only exceptionally be unable to deal with it under the system of classification adopted.

The many synonyms constitute a second obstacle to a simple classification. Ota and Kawamura had by 1933 enumerated 11 synonyms for *T. rubrum* alone.

3. Polymorphism in dermatophytes is a third difficulty. This polymorphism may appear in primary or sub culture. An atypical strain of a well known dermatophyte may thus easily be regarded as a new species. Vanbreuseghem (1930) working with 170 strains of *T. ferrugineum* isolated in the Belgian Congo was able to distinguish a white variety besides the classical form; further he demonstrated that each of these two varieties yielded a new type of colony capable of isolation either simultaneously or separately from the same pathological product and of transformation from one type into another. In view of the fact that one of these types was a dry colony and another was a colony which resembled that of *Trichophyton schoenleii* it must be conceded that the identification of some dermatophytes is made particularly difficult.

4. Pleomorphism of dermatophytes is a purely fermentable trait. Formation of the initial strain which becomes progressively less readily white down made up of fine sterile mycelial filaments. The transformation is so radical that Sabouraud who first observed and described it long considered it to be a contamination or a hybrid—a phenomenon of commensalism. The nature of pleomorphism is unknown; it is however known that its appearance is favoured by the use of sugary media and retarded by subculturing in non-sugary or even non-carbonaceous

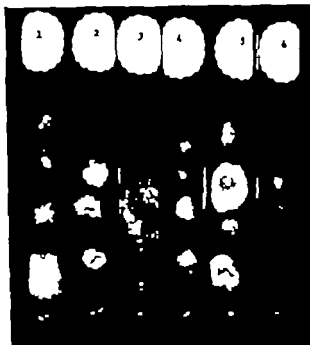


FIG. 1

1 Primary culture of *T. ferrug.* strain RV 1036 on per cent glucose medium aged 29 days. Upper 3 colonies serpiginous and the lowermost on downy.

2 Primary culture of *T. ferrug.* strain RV 1160 aged 31 days on per cent glucose medium. Top 1 bottom serpiginous cerebroid 1 colony and others like the last being exactly of the *A. thersites* type.

3 *T. ferrug.* strain RV 1036 isolated 1 month ago and subcultured in 1 ml. Tl. colonies on per cent glucose medium 3 days old. It is of the 1 colony type and is precisely similar in morphology to that of *T. ferrug.* strain isolated by Ota.

4 *T. ferrug.* primary culture of strain RV 1129 aged 30 days on per cent glucose medium. From top to bottom the first and second colonies are of the serpiginous type, the third is of the fourth leathery and serpiginous.

5 *T. ferrug.* primary culture of strain RV 1129 on per cent glucose medium aged 31 days. At the bottom colonies of the 1 colony type (slightly lower) and the periphery. At the bottom cerebroid colonies.

6 *T. ferrug.* primary culture of strain 1160 on per cent glucose medium aged 31 days. Colony of the serpiginous type with numerous small colonies.

(Photographs by H. B. Boudier)

Raising the temperature to 37° C also stimulates pleomorphism. Certain workers including Sabouraud maintain that only some species of dermatophytes undergo pleomorphism. Whatever the condition *Epidermophyton floccosum* rapidly undergoes pleomorphism. Other workers including the present author believe that all dermatophyte species may undergo pleomorphism; the phenomenon is not always so complete, is distinctive as in the examples described by Sabouraud and the whit down may not be so long nor so abundant but its occurrence seems indisputable. The rapidity of the pleomorphic transformation varies not only with the species but also with the strain. Pleomorphism unfortunately overtakes most cultures in culture collections. Undoubtedly these mycological centres are able to renew their strain and to supply a fresh typical sample to whoever requests a certain dermatophyte species—but if some years have elapsed since the isolation of the required strain one would receive only what the laboratory still retains, i.e. remnants not at all resembling the original strain.

Different classifications, confused nomenclature, polymorphism and pleomorphism such are the major obstacles to the research worker. Is there any remedy? We see only one, perhaps difficult to apply, but which we believe would result in a clarification of our ideas in a confused field and a quick reduction of multiple synonymy. Those who isolate ringworm fungi should send their strains—or preferably the product, such as hair, nails, scale, from which they have isolated the dermatophytes—not to one laboratory, but to five or ten all over the world and appointed by an authority on account of their knowledge of the dermatophyte flora of the region in which they work. Each laboratory would then carry out an independent identification the result of which would be communicated to the research worker either directly or through a central clearing office. Some light would frequently enough emerge from the numerous mist. Though a harbour no illusion as to the difficulty of applying this remedy we believe it to be the only effective one.

### Microscopic Morphology of the Dermatophytes

The morphology of dermatophyte in culture will here be considered whether studied from the seed out fragment in double strength liquid from culture on solid medium, hanging drops or from hair or skin.

The following points are important—

- 1 The vegetative mycelium  
The aerial mycelium
- 2 The reproductive structure—macroconidia (adult) macroconidia (fusiform) chlamydospore
- 3 Ornamented structures—spiral (perforated) hyphae  
thick hyphae  
Nodular mycelium

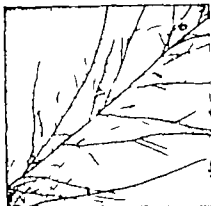


Fig. 2. *Chenopodium* 11 days after emergence (140)



Fig. 3. Same as Fig. 2 but the centre (10)



Fig. 4. Same as Fig. 2 but the centre (140)

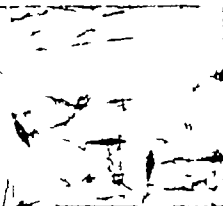


Fig. 5. Same as Fig. 4 but the centre (10)



Fig. 6. *T. lycopodium* 23 days after emergence (140)

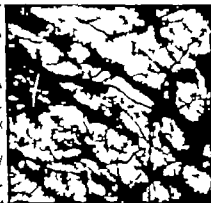


Fig. 7. Same as Fig. 6 but the centre (10)



FIG 28 *F. podarctoplyten flaccidum*  
Blade culture aged 7 days. Periphery  
(x 140)

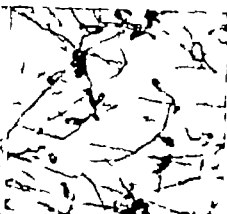


FIG 29 Same as FIG 28. 1 later (re)  
(x 140)

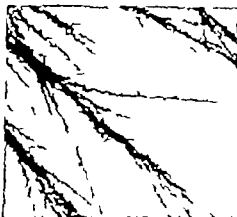


FIG 30 *L. peronensis* blade culture aged 6 days. Periphery (x 140)

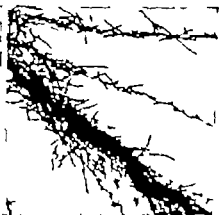


FIG 31 Same as FIG 30. 1 later (re)  
centre (x 140)

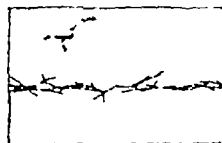


FIG 32 *L. peronensis* blade culture aged 6 days. Detail of  
branched blade at from periphery  
(x 800). Inset. Lateralized artro  
pores forming images of microtubuli  
dia (x 400)

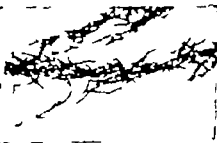


FIG 33 *L. peronensis* blade culture aged 6 days. Detail of  
centre (x 140)

### The Vegetative Mycelium

The vegetative hyphae appear first in culture. Whatever the origin of the culture from pathological products—nail hair scales—or fragments of culture of macroconidia microconidia chlamydospores or of mycelium the germination of these elements always results in the formation of a mycelial tube of 2 to 4  $\mu$  directed towards the periphery at the surface of the culture medium and which after travelling for 20 to 40  $\mu$  septates. The parts of the hyphae enclosed between two septa are called segments. Once formed the segment does not enlarge but it often gives rise to secondary hyphae which are mostly born immediately behind the distal septum directed towards the periphery and make a more or less obtuse angle with the hyphae from which arose.

It happens occasionally that certain secondary hyphae instead of growing towards the periphery go backward. This is exceptional except in the case of the genus *Langstonia* where it is the rule.

The segment of the vegetative hyphae may swell at a short distance from the distal septum. This type of hyphae which is more frequent in certain species than in others. S. bouvardii gives on the microscope the racquet hyphae. In yet other cases the vegetative hyphae bend in arcs of circles and protuberances appear on the concave side of each arc. In these S. bouvardii has given the name pectinate hyphae. They are most clearly seen in the species *Sclerotium tesleri* (Vanbreuseghem 1931).

The segments of the vegetative mycelium may fragment by the formation of transverse partitions. These fragments are arthrospores. When liberated from their parent segment the arthrospores may simulate macroconidia whose origin is quite different.

In certain dermatophytes quite long fragments of a segment may become isolated divide into cells and present the appearance of macroconidia. This is particularly clear in certain strains of *Trichophyton rubrum*. Many workers relate these to the macroconidia which arise on the aerial mycelium. This is not to be accepted without reserve.

Upon immersing themselves into their support the filaments of the vegetative mycelium may wind up into a spiral. This is clearer in culture sections. These spirals have nothing in common with the spirals appearing in cultures of *Cytomyces* and care must be taken to avoid confusion.

### The Aerial Mycelium

This is characteristic of downy or powdery cultures. It arises on the vegetative mycelium behind a distal septum and coils slightly about itself at its point of origin. It is thinner than the vegetative mycelium and becomes shortly segmented. It may terminate abruptly or alternately travel over long distances in a straight line. The aerial mycelium bears reproductive structures.

## Reproductive Structures

The microconidia arise on either side of the aerial filament by the condensation of protoplasm within small, uniform or rounded excrescences. When these microconidia appear upon only one part or another of the



FIG. 31

Micrograph showing a dense network of dark, branching, filamentous structures, likely representing the reproductive structures of a fungus, possibly a mold or yeast, growing on a light-colored substrate.

primarily lateral branch growth. It is of the *delicately* lateral branches when they appear are at right angles to the main appearance. The simplest configuration are in the form of filaments. Crosses covered with microconidia forming groups like in section may be extensive. This is seen in *Coccidioides immitis* and to less extent in *T. dermatophila*. The microconidia arise on the vegetative or the non-reproductive

has already been sufficiently described. It is to be noted that the genus *Epidermophyton* which does not form macroconidia produce macroconidia in clusters like bunches of bananas. Those of *Sphaerulium* are lanceolate with thick and granular wall. The *Trichophyton* have cigar shaped macroconidia with fine walls. Those of the *Ctenomyces* species have irregular wall with a large base and an obtuse extremity.

Chlamydospores arise upon vegetative or aerial mycelia. They are rounded cell of double contour which may be terminal, lateral or intercalary. They are sometimes chains especially in old cultures.

### Ornamented Structures

In *Ctenomyces* and sometimes in other genera when natural culture media are used there usually appear spirals (coiled hyphae with tight spirals) dikaryotic or heterokaryotic which arise from the end of thick and granular vegetative hyphae. Less frequently thick vegetative hyphae may terminate with hook or anchor shaped hyphae. Dixon and Crooks (1937) have made a detailed and interesting study of these forms.

### Modular Bodies

These have been described by Saksrud in connection with *Ctenomyces* (*Trichophyton*) *lacticolor*. They are regarded as rudimentary sexual structures (Fennons). They are like microconidia have dense protoplasmic content and are tightly knotted. They develop in a similar fashion to other forms of reproduction. Saksrud noted that in old culture they may grow by putting out erect thin hyphae.

### Pleomorphism

Isomorphism of dermatophytes has been defined (cf. p. 1) as an irreversible transformation of the individual strain which goes itself progressively with a whit downmark of fine sterile mycelial filament and some of the conditions governing its appearance have been indicated. A little amplification is desirable.

Pleomorphism is irreversible. A number of workers have attempted to bring about the reversion of pleomorphic strain to their initial morphology. Acton and Dey (1934) claimed to have achieved this by growing pleomorphic strains on feathers. Laneyron and Milchevitch (1937) showed that this apparent success was probably due to the fact that they had used incompletely pleomorphic strains. Cifari and Pedraza (1947) claim in certain cases to have observed a return to normal morphology by keeping pleomorphic strains upon natural media in the dark for

By growing pleomorphic strains of dermatophytes (*C. /* p. code and *Trichophyton* *fluorescens*) upon sterile soil Vanbreuseghem and Van Brussel have demonstrated that it reverts to perfectly normal or Kures non pleomorphic as rich in reproductive forms. If these observations are confirmed it would apply to all Dermatophytes the dogma of the irreversibility of pleomorphism which has been its own first account (all but the *C. R. Soc. Biol.* (1953)).



three years. Hruček (1930) failed to bring about reversion to the type culture by varying pH, oxygen tension or by any other means. He reported a curious and as yet unconfirmed phenomenon, i.e. that pleomorphic strains of *Ichthyospora gypsum* kept at 37°C change into culture of the fusiform type, and when brought back to 22°C the cultures revert to their usual pleomorphic type.

Pleomorphic strains can be inoculated into animals (Langeron and Talice 1930) and into man (Hruček 1930). The retri-cultures yield pleomorphic colonies. Langeron and Talice (1930) by inoculating the guinea pig with a pleomorphic strain of *Sabouraudia filiformis* observed that the proliferation was composed solely of intrapilary filaments. On the other hand they noticed that this inoculation immunized a guinea pig against a previous inoculation of a non pleomorphic strain of the same dermatophyte.

Catanei (1933) summarizes as follows an important experiment upon pleomorphic strains. 1. When the normal proliferation of the endothrix type, that which the pleomorphic culture produces is characterized by a reduction of parasitism. The intrapilary element remains filamentous, the formation of arthrospores being reduced or completely suppressed.

When the normal proliferation is of the ectothrix, microsporic, microfilid or megasporic type, it is apparent that the characteristic sheath is not longer formed around the hair in the manner produced experimentally by pleomorphic culture.

On the other hand the author like us considers that the white dwarf is not the only pleomorphic form. He proves this conclusively by the fact that certain degenerate forms which he found in the hair identical with those produced by the classical pleomorphic form.

### The Law of Specificity of Dermatophytes

Much has been written about this law defined by Sabouraud (Le Teste p. 40) as 'the law of correspondence between the ecological specificity of a fungus and the parasite environment' and it has given rise to various discussions. However expressed in the following I summarize it. The law of specificity of the dermatophytes states that the most highly differentiated dermatophytes usually produce a recognizable lesion (Sabouraud in Schöberl, *Med. Wochenschr.*) it is admissible by very many as a general principle. It is certain that a scalp microsporia (microsporia) is not distinguished from a trichophytia (trichophytia) that it is a lesion generally caused by the species *Trichophyton* that a favus scutulae is mostly caused by the species *T. schoenleii* that *Trichophyton rubrum* more than any other dermatophyte is the cause of athlete's foot and persistent infections of the glabrous skin that this same dermatophyte only exceptionally attacks the scalp that tinea (tinea imbricata) is caused by only one dermatophyte *T. concentricum* that *Ichthyospora marginalis* is mostly frequently caused by *Epidermophyton floccosum*, *T. rubrum* or *T. digitale* that dermatophytes (animal origin) usually produce pyoderma.

lesions where as those of human origin are generally dry. But this is a far case in y go *Sabouria dithridon* 8 ca: *Trichophyton solaceum* re not alw y responsible for the same lesions. *T. solaceum* for example usually produces a scalp ringworm but Majocchi in 1907 described it producing trichophytic granuloma and Teberno outbott in 1928 reported the occurrence of *T. solaceum* in bony cavity. Kaplan and Ra. buschek (1948) report 1 a ca. ffection caused by *T. arborescens* and could find only three more such cases reported in the literature. Hadada, Marill and Mourou described a case of generalized favus on 16 year old Muslim girl in whom in 1 month f the lymph nodes f the right inguinal region had indicated a picture f Nicola Favre disease. Haemoculture in this case had been positive.

Evidently if the law of specificity f the dermatophytes applies to good many cases often it does not. The cause of these variations is uncertain in some cases it is due to a particular pathogenicity of certain strains in others to a particular receptivity on the part of certain patients.

### Symptomatology of the Dermatophytes

Dermatophyte symptomatology f which the reader can find excellent descriptions in almost any treatise on dermatophytes will not here be described at length. The following may profitably be consulted. Vol II of the *Vous II Pratique Dermatologique* Paris Masson 1936. *A. I. Introduction to Medical Mycology* by Lewis and Hopper 1949 and *Manual of Clinical Mycology* 2nd Ed. by Conant et al 1954.

### 1. Dermatophyte Infections of the Scalp or Ringworm Proper

(a) The microsporiasis (*microsporia*). These diseases occur before puberty mostly upon children f school age. The lesion appears as a rounded plaque f average diameter 4 to 6 cm at the level f which re found hairs broken 2 or 4 mm from the pilar orifice. The hairs re surrounded by a whit sheath as if they had been dipped into flour or fine sand after having been smeared with glue. The microsporias of animal origin are often accompanied by a slight suppuration. They are cured spontaneously at puberty.

(b) The trichophyte infections (*trichophytia*). These are also found on children of school age and are characterized by small irregular plaques upon which are found short broken hairs sometimes so short that they are reduced to black points betwixt the pilar orifice. Their extraction is difficult and they are cured at puberty.

(c) Favus. This is acquired in infancy but may persist for life. Near to non broken but lustreless hairs scutula are usually found surrounding the pilar orifice. These have a sulphur yellow colour and emit mouse like odour. The lesions develop and leave deep scars which end in incurable baldness.

three years Hruček (1936) failed to bring about reversion to the type culture by varying pH oxygen tension or by any other means. He reported a curious and as yet unconfirmed phenomenon i.e. that pleomorphic strains of *Achorion gypseum* kept at 37° C change into culture of the faviform type and when brought back to 22° C the cultures revert to their usual pleomorphic type.

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known where those of human origin are generally by. But this is as far as one may go. Subordinated to and/or secondary *Trichophyton* infections are not always responsible for the same lesions. *T. violaceum* for example usually produces a scalp ringworm, but Majocchi in 1907 described it as producing trichophytic granuloma and Thernogoniboff in 1928 reported the occurrence of *T. violaceum* in a bony cavity. Kaplan and Raubitschek (1946) reported a case of kerion caused by *T. schoenleii* and could find only three more such cases reported in the literature. Hadada, Marill and Mourer described a case of generalized folliculitis on a 16 year old Tunisian girl in whom involvement of the lymph nodes of the right inguinal region had indicated a picture of Nicot's Erythema. Haemoculture in this case had been positive.

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(b) The trichophyte infection (*trichophytie*). These are also found on children of school age and are characterized by small irregular plaques upon which are found short broken hairs sometimes so short that they are reduced to black points obstructing the polar orifice. Their extraction is difficult and they are cured at puberty.

(c) Fungus. This is acquired in infancy but may persist for life. It is characterized by non broken but lustreless hairs sent out from usually found surrounding the polar orifice. These hairs are sulphur yellow color and emit a mouse-like odour. The lesions develop and leave deep scars which end in incurable baldness.

(d) Kerions are rounded plaques more elevated, suppurative and attack the head at any age. The hair is spontaneously expelled from the



FIG. 2

Large plaque of microsporum infection.

plum orifice which emit pus. Recovery is spontaneous. The kerions are usually caused by microsporum. The hairs may be broken or intact.

### 2. Dermatophyte Infections of the Beard

These are also generally called kerions or para-trichiasis. They are produced by various dermatophytes of which the microspores are the most important. They are found in adult men and possess the same aspect as the kerions of the scalp. They cure spontaneously. It is to be noted that the microbial vesicles are especially localized beneath the nostril perforations.

### 3. Dermatophyte Infections of the Glabrous Skin

Upon the glabrous skin may be found circinate kerions the centre of which appear to be healthy whilst more elevated, vesicular and vesiculo-crusted extend to the periphery. Neighbouring rings may fuse. These lesions commonly called herpetic circinate or Saint Catherine's wheel appear on adults as well as children. In our countries *S. can.* seems to be the most frequent agent.

Under certain conditions favus may invade the glabrous skin and form scutula as for the scalp.

Kerions are frequently found on glabrous skin. They are caused by *Trichomyces* and *Microsporum*. *Trichomyces* is in contact with human



## 6 The Dermatophytes

Cutaneous or other lesions secondary to a pre-existing dermatophyte infection are named thus. They will be considered in the section on allergy.

### Histopathology

There is little to be said on this subject for the dermatophytes are primarily diseases which affect the superficial keratinized layer of the epidermis. However the structure of favic acutuli, the nature of favic alopecia, the trichophytic granulomas, have evoked a great many studies which need not be considered here for they make no essential contribution to the problem of the dermatophytes.

### Treatment

*Dermatophyte therapy* varies according to whether the regions affected are the scalp, the skin or the nails. The following account is a broad summary of the treatment of these three regions when subject to dermatophyte infections.

1. *Treatment of Scalp Ringworm.* As they are maintained by infection of the hair, the methods of treatment of scalp ringworm involve either depilation or alternatively destruction of the dermatophytes in the hair.

#### (a) Depilation

The first method ever to be used was mechanical removal of the hair by means of pincers or a wax cap. No longer used alone, this method is however used to improve depilation made by other means.

The second method is depilation by thallium acetate devised by Sabouraud in 1897 but soon afterwards abandoned by him because of its dangers and especially on account of the introduction of depilation by means of X-ray. It has fallen into disrepute which is perhaps regrettable.

Thallium acetate administered *per os* induces hair fall after the seventh day. Fall is completed from the sixteenth to the eighteenth day and regrowth occurs after the third or fourth week. Although due to the thallium does not extend to the eyelids and the inner region of the eyebrows. Early regrowth (perhaps due to the fact that small doses of thallium have a stimulating effect on regrowth of the hair) (Cooper and Engelman, 1931) and also the danger of intoxication constitute the great objections to its use. Hairs reappearing after the third or fourth week stand a greater chance of being contaminated by hairs which have not yet fallen (after X-ray treatment regrowth occurs only after the second month).

A recent method of X-ray depilation (the Sabouraud method) consists in the use of a special X-ray lamp (the Sabouraud lamp) which emits a soft X-ray of low voltage (about 15 kV) and a low current (about 10 mA). The lamp is held at a distance of about 10 cm from the scalp and the hair is exposed for about 10 minutes. The method is safe and effective and does not cause any damage to the skin or the hair.

Toxic effect due to thallium can't manifest themselves by muscular and articular polymyositis and by a temporary albuminuria. This remedy cannot be administered after puberty because it causes glandular atrophy. The optimum dose varies from 8 to 80 mg per kilo of weight and the dose cannot be repeated before two months.

Thallium which can be isolated (Crookes 1881) from copper pyrites marcassite, the blende is widely distributed in the plant kingdom (e.g. in chicory, tobacco, white hellebore and birchwood). It is however usually obtained from lead chromates and formates burning thalliferous pyrites. Though it first employed in the treatment of syphilis and cystitis it was soon abandoned because of its cumulative toxic effects.

According to Davidson (Gregory and Bert) it should be administered as follows: children are weighed naked for two days running, and a complete physical examination and x-ray taken. Chemically pure thallium acetate is a very fine powder which must be weighed twice and carefully placed in a well stoppered bottle. The correct dose—8 to 80 mg per kilo—is the lowest weight in kilos multiplied by 8 or 80. When ready to be taken the thallium acetate is dissolved in about 100 c.c. of sweetened water taking great care that the whole of the salt is dissolved. Children over two years old and all those appearing to require a dose more than 100 mg should not be subjected to this treatment. Having taken the medicine the child is put to bed for 4 hours. The head is shaved and coated with tincture of iodine three times a day. After three days in hospital the child is sent home with two caps one to be worn while the other is washed. After 1 day the hair is washed twice a day with soap. According to these workers hair fall commences on the 6th day towards the thirteenth day and is complete from the twentieth to the twenty-fifth. Infected hairs tend to fall later than healthy ones and regrowth commences before all the hairs have fallen. The removal of the old hair must therefore be accomplished with great care and tincture of iodine must be conscientiously applied.

Though X-ray depilation is the best method the thallium acetate method has certain value. Details for its use have been given fully because well administered thallium acetate is less dangerous than bad X-ray application.

The X-ray technique cannot be acquired from book and when well applied it gives more certain results than thallium because hair fall occurs during the third or fourth week whilst the new growth does not appear before the second month. There is thus time to shave the child's head after hair fall and to remove any infected hairs which have not been eliminated. Remarkable results have been obtained at the Lailler school by skilful application of this method but the precautions to be taken for good results without danger can be learnt only by practical demonstration. Elsewhere disastrous results have been encountered such as definitive baldness or therapeutic failure resulting either from insufficient dosage or bad distribution of the radiation.



## 6 The Dermatophytes

Cutaneous or other lesions secondary to a pre-existing dermatophyte infection are named thus. They will be considered in the section on allergy.

### Histopathology

There is little to be said on this subject for the dermatophytes are primarily diseases which affect the superficial keratinized layer of the epidermis. However the structure of favic scutula, the nature of favic alopecia, the trichophytic granulomas have evoked a great many studies which need not be considered here for they make no essential contribution to the problem of the dermatophytes.

### Treatment

Dermatophyte therapy varies according to whether the regions affected are the scalp, the skin or the nails. The following account is a broad summary of the treatment of these three regions when subject to dermatophyte infections.

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X-ray treatment of scalp ringworm. The following table shows the results of treatment of scalp ringworm by X-ray. The results are given in the following table.

Case	Sex	Age	Site of infection	Duration of treatment	Results
1	M	15	Scalp	10 days	Complete cure
2	F	12	Scalp	15 days	Complete cure
3	M	18	Scalp	20 days	Complete cure
4	F	16	Scalp	25 days	Complete cure
5	M	20	Scalp	30 days	Complete cure
6	F	22	Scalp	35 days	Complete cure
7	M	25	Scalp	40 days	Complete cure
8	F	28	Scalp	45 days	Complete cure
9	M	30	Scalp	50 days	Complete cure
10	F	32	Scalp	55 days	Complete cure

on the matter.

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Thallium which can be isolated (Crookes 1861) from copper pyrites, marcasite, zinc blende is widely distributed in the plant kingdom e.g. in rhubarb, tobacco, wine, beetroots and beechwood. It is however usually obtained from lead chambers and furnaces burning thalliferous pyrites. Though at first employed in the treatment of syphilis and cystitis it is now abandoned because of its cumulative toxic effect.

According to D'Almon, Gregory and Hart it should be administered as follows: children are weighed naked for two days running and a complete physical examination and urine test made. Chemically pure thallium acetate is a crystalline powder which must be weighed twice and carefully placed in a labelled bottle. The correct dose—8 to 8 mg. per kilo—is the low weight in kilos multiplied by 8 or 8. When ready to be taken the thallium acetate is dissolved in about 100 c.c. of sweetened water taking great care that the whole of the salt is dissolved. Children over twelve years old and all those appearing to require a dose more than 300 m. should not be subjected to this treatment. Half taken in the medicine the child is put to bed for 4 hours. The head is shaved and oiled with tincture of iodine three times a day. After three days in hospital the child is sent home with two caps one to be worn while the other is washed. After 1 day the hair is washed twice a day with soap. According to these workers hair fall commences on the seventh day towards the thirteenth day and is complete from the twentieth to the twenty-fifth. Infected hairs tend to fall later than healthy ones and regrowth commences before all the hairs have fallen. The removal of the old hair must therefore be accomplished with great care and tincture of iodine must be conventionally applied.

Though X-ray depilation is the best method the thallium acetate method has certain advantages: details for its use have been given fully because when administered thallium acetate is less dangerous than bad X-ray application.

The X-ray technique cannot be acquired from books and when well applied it gives more certain results than thallium because hair fall occurs during the third or fourth week whilst the new growth does not appear before the second month. There is thus time to observe the child's head after hair fall and to remove any infected hairs which have not been eliminated. Remarkable results have been obtained at the Lailler school by skilful application of this method but the precautions to be taken for good result without danger can be learnt only by practical demonstration. Elsewhere disastrous results have been encountered such as definitive baldness or therapeutic failure resulting, either from insufficient dosage or bad distribution of the radiation.

Depilation by thallium acetate or X rays is essential and should be reserved for scalp ringworm of human origin such as *Sabouraudia audouinii*. This matter will be further considered later. On the other hand ringworm of animal origin e.g. *S. canis* with their natural tendency to heal spontaneously would appear to be more suitably treated by one of the following method which expedite recovery.

### (b) External Treatment of Scalp Ringworm

Though Sabouraud frequently denied that ringworm could be cured by the application of medicament because of the inaccessibility of the dermatophytes concerned many attempts have been made along these lines during the last few years. Enthusiastic reports have given the impression that scalp ringworm is now only a trivial therapeutic problem. However enthusiasm has often been far from general on account of frequent misinterpretation of successful result. Rivaux (1940) has noted recently that there are microsporiosis—even of human origin—which are spontaneously curable and Klugman and Anderson (1941) in an article noteworthy in more than one respect have reopened the whole question. From their experiences during a recent epidemic in the United States caused by *Microsporum audouinii* they concluded that—

1 Spontaneous cure occurs in a large number of people suffering from ringworm

2 In a large number of cases the infection is accompanied by an inflammatory reaction if this acts in healing follows

3 So called cures resulting from the local application of fungicide are really spontaneous cures. This opinion was based on the observation of 199 cases in which the same percentage of cures (approx. 6 per cent) was obtained by using either the base alone (carbowax) or the fungicide (zinc ethylene bisdithiocarbamate).

One must therefore distinguish amongst the ringworm affliction those which are spontaneously curable and those which are not. The latter incapable of responding to local treatment should be submitted to X ray treatment after a period of 1 to 3 months. At the former it remains to find out the extent to which local treatment expeditiously cures in any case it would seem that such a treatment would postpone the dissemination of the disease even if it did not effect a cure.

Among the fungicide employed locally are antibiotics and chemicals.

### A. Antibiotics

In 1946 Curry demonstrated the fungicidal and fungistatic action of tyrothricine *in vitro* upon dermatophytes. In France since July 1948 (at Coudert and Cotte) have attempted to treat ringworm caused by *M. audouinii* with application of tyrothricine (1 mg per g of ointment) and obtained 41 recoveries (6 per cent) out of 66 cases in 3 to 4 days. In the remaining cases depilation with X ray was necessary. The correspondence of this with the 6 per cent spontaneous recoveries is

Kligman and Anderson is noteworthy. In August 1948 however Gate Coudert and Cotte reported further observations extending their work to the trichophyton infections and noting particularly good recovery from those of animal origin. In 1949 Gate Coudert and Jehl confirmed these results and used daily application of a lotion containing 1 mg of tyro thricine per c.c. 70 per cent of acetone and 10 per cent of propylene glycol in alcohol at 70°C. In widespread scalp ringworm however they preferred depilation by X ray.

Moriame (1948) summarized the results of his experiments on the treatment of microsporia ringworm by local application of penicillin and they apparently do not differ from the above.

## B. Chemical Remedies

There are so numerous that no attempt is here made to summarize them. In practice they involve the association of a fungicidal or fungistatic substance e.g. phenyl mercuric nitrate salicylanilide cupram monium hydroxide mixture of a propionate and a caprylate etc. with penetrating base usually carbowax 1500. They give similar results to those obtained with antibiotics. Rens and Winston (1949) have however obtained excellent results with podophyllin but Kligman has blamed this method for causing diffuse baldness (in Kligman and Anderson 1951).

**Conclusion.** There are two types of scalp ringworm those which tend to heal spontaneously and those which do not. The first are treated by the application of a local therapeutic which appears to stimulate natural recovery and prevents the spread of the disease whilst the second are treated by submission to the depilatory action of X ray or possibly of thallium acetate.

In our view the greatest progress has resulted from the introduction of local therapeutic measures in so far as it is now recognized that there may be spontaneous recovery from certain types of ringworm disease which thus do not require the application of X rays.

**2. Treatment of Dermatophyte Infections of the Folds and the Glabrous Skin.** The dermatophyte infections of the glabrous skin lacking any inflammatory reaction of note may easily be cured by the application of 1 per cent iodized alcohol by Whitfield ointment the salicylic and benzoic acid content being carefully gauged according to the nature of the patient's skin by Castellani's paint or by the application of one of the numerous remedies now available and usually containing unsaturated fatty acid.

The following recipe (Castellani's fuchsin) was proposed by Castellani: pour 10 c.c. of an alcoholic solution saturated with basic fuchsin into 100 c.c. of an aqueous solution of 5 per cent phenol. Filter and add 1 g. of boric acid. Two hours later add 5 c.c. of acetone and after a further two hours 10 g. of resorcinol. Apply once or twice a day. Castellani particularly recommended this remedy for the treatment of tokelan in very primitive natives: it was difficult with civilized patients.

The lesions caused by microd or megaspore have a natural tendency to heal. This is facilitated by the use of one or another fungicide. In a particularly resistant and extensive infection caused by *Ctenomyces asteroides* we had to resort to inoculation by *Trichophyton quinquevittatum* a method we believe to have been used by Bruno Bloch. Eight days after this vaccination the patient was cured of a disease which had lasted two months and showed no improvement prior to the inoculation.

A genuine case of Hebra's eczema marginatum usually clears without difficulty by the application of one or other of the fungicides. The forms said to be resistant are mainly erythrasma. However the dermatophytic affections of this region caused by *T. rubrum* are said to defy the rapid measures.

The treatment of dermatophyte infections of the feet or Athlete's foot is the subject of such an abundant literature that we deem it best to indicate our personal experience.

The hygiene of Athlete's foot should be appreciated. Whenever possible the wearing of sandals is recommended (cf. Nickerson, Irving and Melmer 1945). The shoes and socks (the latter preferably of cotton) should be changed daily. The shoes may be disinfected by pouring commercial formalin diluted to 1/10 on to a wad of cotton wool, this is placed in the shoe which is enclosed in a box or in wrapping paper for 24 hours. The shoe is then aired before use (cf. Weedman, Emerson, Hopkins and Lewis 1945).

In the chronic form it may be adequate to powder the feet each morning with a proprietary powder or simply with 10 per cent boracic talcum powder. Weedman and Class (1948) have demonstrated the efficacy of this which has an activity comparable with that of the proprietary remedies.

In the vesicular form a very hot foot bath in water to which an alkaline powder such as Borax Bicarbonate or Thymol 1 per cent has been added is recommended for eight days, night and morning, each immersion lasting 15 minutes. The foot bath is followed by careful drying with vigorous rubbing to remove the scale and open the vesicles. At night a proprietary ointment or simply Whitfield ointment in which the concentration of the salicylic acid varies from 1 to 5 per cent and that of the benzoic acid from 5 to 10 per cent. Apparently it may be added is best to vary the material used on account of the formation of resistant strains (see Villanova and Caceres 1950). In the morning the foot is removed by careful washing and a powder is applied for the day.

In the haemorrhagic form rest with limbs extended is indispensable and in any case the patient is in most instances incapable of walking. The same treatment for the vesicular form should be applied but during the day ointment should be used. Foot baths with potassium permanganate (1:4000) are usually a helpful preliminary infection.

It is difficult to be certain whether Athlete's foot is a real and

distinguish relapses from reinfections. We feel that treatment properly carried out for three months will bring about the disappearance of all clinical symptoms and that daily powdering prevent relapses in almost all cases.

**3 Treatment of Dermatophyte Infections of the Nails.** Of all dermatophyte infections onychomycoses are the most difficult to cure. The two main reasons for this are (i) the difficulty of reaching the parasite in the depth of the nail (ii) the well known resistance of *Trichophyton rubrum* which is one of the most frequent causes of ungual mycoses to therapeutic agent.

The treatment of onychomycoses by surgical extraction has long been practised. This method always difficult to get the patient to agree to can be recommended when only one or two nails are affected. Surgical traumatism is thus minimized and post operational treatments have some chance of successful application. Mere removal of the nail is not sufficient to effect a cure. Local application of fungicides is necessary. Afterwards as long as there is any doubt about the healthy growth of the new nail.

Sabouraud in 1930 proposed the abrasion of the outer layers of the nail by means of a dental file. This instrument a scalpel or a nail file must in any case plane away the nail before a fungicide may be applied. One of the most favoured of these is Whitfield's ointment in which the concentration of salicylic acid is increased to 40 per cent. It must be applied carefully ensuring proper protection of the perungual tissues. The treatment must be kept up for six months to one year and the complete collaboration of the patient is necessary for good results.

Nickerson and Whit (1948) proposed the treatment of onychomycoses with ammoniacal silver nitrate which appears to have the property of penetrating the keratin and acting as a fungicide. Out of 16 patients so treated these workers obtained 9 cures and 7 improvements. The number of applications necessary at the rate of one per week varies from 1 to 10. Franks and Sternberg (1950) by the same method reported 7 failures in onychomycoses due to *T. rubrum* and 7 successes in cases due to *C. albicans*. It has already been stated that only the true onychomycoses are caused by dermatophytes and that *Candida albicans* only causes paronychia accompanied by trophic lesions of the nail. In two cases of onychomycoses due to *T. rubrum* we have tried the method of Nickerson and White without success.

Thus the best method of treating onychomycoses seems to be abrasion of the nail followed by the application of a keratolytic and fungicidal substance.

### Prognosis

The dermatophyte affections are of a minor character many of them healing spontaneously. Favus which is rare is the most serious because of its duration and the alopecia which it causes. The kerions and the paronychia mycoses are painful but not serious. Lesions of the nails produced

by dermatophytes are unightly and when the nail of the hand are involved they resist most methods of treatment. Athlete's foot which is benign can cause serious loss in man power on account of the number of individuals it attacks.

### Differential Diagnosis

A considerable number of cutaneous affections may be confused with those caused by Dermatophytes. Scalp ringworm and tinea are the easiest dermatophytic infections to diagnose after some light experience. However even favus of the scalp may be difficult to diagnose in view of the fact that there are forms of favus without scutula which have been well described by Sabouraud and the number of which is probably increasing. Fichmans and Vanbreeghem (1951) called them *afavic favus*. Mistakes are made often in connection with the dermatophytic infections of the nail and folds of the skin. In our experience diagnosis of dermatophytic infection is often based upon lesions not of a dermatophytic type and the real dermatophytic diseases are often ignored even by the most advanced observers.

### Diagnosis

Five different techniques are used for diagnosing dermatophytic infections each with its own particular value. These involve microscopic examination (of hair scales and nail), culture, experimental inoculation, culture upon isolated hairs and examination under Wood's light.

1. **Microscopic Examination** For microscopic examination to be of value the sampling must first be well carried out. The sampling here is almost more important than the examination itself.

#### (a) Examination of the Hair

It is easy enough to take with forceps a few hairs broken at the tip of a patch of microsporia but this procedure is more difficult with trichophytic infections where the hairs broken off at the level of the papillary orifice are almost impossible to secure. It is better to rub the suspect patch with the forceps mount the debris on a slide (a cuticle needle) and pick out suspected fragments with the help of a needle. A fragment mounted in chloral lactophenol and examined under bright and critical illumination on the microscope.

In scalp favus diagnosis is easy if there is a scutula one which is taken with tweezers and crushed in a petri dish. A fragment of the scutula placed in a drop of chloral lactophenol will show numerous striations of irregular shapes. The hair which is the centre of the scutula examined similarly to investigate the covering filament. In the case of favus without scutula it is usually best to examine the patient with Wood's light and to take specimen of fluorescent hair at the time of the examination.

The use of this prepared 10 percent solution is also suitable for the

examination of hairs is not to be recommended. This alters the disposition of the mycelium in and round the hair, much when a dilute lact phenol has left the filaments intact. Certain mycologists however prefer to use potassium hydroxide for the examination of false hair, because this is the only



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mean of causing air bubbles to appear in the hair and this is thought to be of great value in diagnosis.

Needles to say reproductive structure such micro or macro conidia are never found in the hair nor in scales and nails. This remark would have been omitted had not recent American work (Appel and Anel 1949) affirmed that macroconidia (*f. venter*) had been found in infected hair. The structures in question were not macroconidia but epithelial cells of the palmar follicle which liberated with the hair at the time of its excretion simulate rather poorly the macroconidia (*f. Sabouraudii*). Work done by Ajello (1951) has already corrected this mistake.

#### (b) Examination of Scales

Scales are removed with forceps. If they are too small for this, the epidermis is scraped with either the blade of an old scalpel or with a



vaccinating stylus over a slide sterilized by heating in a flame. When there are blisters the top of one is torn away or removed with scissors. In contrast with hairs which must be examined in chloral lactophenol scales may be examined in potash after slight warming. Microscopic examination using a high powered eyepiece and a low powered objective enables the moderately practised eye to scan the preparation rapidly and recognize the possible presence of branching mycelial filament sometimes reduced to arthrospores which provides the diagnosis. There are two possible sources of error—

1 Contamination of the scales by saprophytic *Penicillium* or *Aspergillus* species mycelial filaments of which may be present. These are fairly easy to identify because their diameter often varies considerably in the same preparation moreover in cases of contamination the easily identified fructifications of *Aspergillus* or *Penicillium* are often found.

2 The Mosaic fungus. There is as yet no general agreement as to the exact significance of these curious forms which may be mistaken for the mycelium of dermatophytes. However the shapes of the pseudo mycelia are more geometrical than those of the real mycelium the segments of the false mycelium of mosaic fungus often having sharp or angular sections at their extremities.

Examination of scales in chloral lactophenol is not to be recommended for the turbidity of the preparation obscures the mycelial filament.

### (c) Examination of Nails

Nails should be examined in a freshly prepared 80 per cent solution of caustic potash. A scale in chloral lactophenol does not clear them sufficiently. Good sampling is essential with the aid of a new scalpel or razor blade and the part of the nail really attacked must be removed. In the symptomatology it has been pointed out that the surface of the nail may remain intact when the nail was internally affected. Thus the external region of the nail must be removed to obtain the diseased part. Bad sampling is undoubtedly responsible for many microscopic examination appearing to be negative when from the clinical point of view the diagnosis of onychomycosis is evident (cf. Dostrovsky, Raubitschek and Sagar 1941). It must be added that this clinical diagnosis is insufficient.

2 Cultures. Cultures should be made on Sabouraud medium with 1 per cent glucose and modified by Langeron. To obtain primary culture more easily it is useful to add penicillin to the medium according to Vanbreughelen's technique (1940). As with the microscopic examination it is essential to commence with sample correctly obtained and to try out several inoculations in order to obtain a positive culture. Hairs will give positive cultures scales less easily and nails less easily still. Commencing with 10 samples of nails which had given a positive result on microscopic examination Dostrovsky, Raubitschek and Sagar (1941) obtained only 11 culture of dermatophyte. This is an extreme case where

can obtain 50 per cent positive results from the appropriate samples and the percentage would be better still if we could repeat the sampling or had the samples more abundantly available. Wedman and Cole (1949) who obtained 35 per cent positive results by culturing samples from cases of Athlete's foot insist upon the need to repeat the cultures.

Quite a number of authors emphasize the value of washing scales with alcohol before proceeding with the culturing. Apart from cleaning the lesions with alcohol or ether at the time of sampling, we have never found that there was any need to do this. It is however noteworthy that those who work with tokelau, g. Castellani, Ari-Leo and Coto insist upon the procedure.

In our view the one essential is to make a number of cultures. Wherever it is usually sufficient to inoculate a single tube at three point order to isolate dermatophytes from hair in the case of scales or nails it is often necessary to deal with six or ten tubes in this way between 1 and 10 inoculations to obtain a positive result.

Three small points in connexion with the study of dermatophytes must here be dealt with namely antagonism between bacteria and dermatophytes, antagonism of dermatophytes between themselves and finally the problem of mixed infection.

#### (1) Antagonism between Bacteria and Dermatophytes

The question at issue is whether bacteria exert a stimulatory or an inhibitory action on the growth of dermatophytes. Since the experimental results of various workers are so inconclusive part of the problem clearly eludes us. In general way however it is clear that when samples for culture are heavily contaminated with bacteria isolation of the dermatophytes becomes difficult. Indirect evidence for this is found in the fact that inoculations upon Sabouraud's medium with penicillin often give more reliable results than those done on media without penicillin.

In 1939 Catanei concluded from numerous experiments that staphylococci favour the development of *T. schoenii*. He wrote however that the development of the fungus is all the greater as that of the microbe is limited. On the other hand Baudet (1934) obtained more abundant and more downy cultures of various trichophytons upon an agar medium based upon a staphylococcus culture in ordinary broth which had previously been sterilized by heat.

Against these observations supporting the view that microbial action stimulates the development of dermatophytes are opposed the results of Falck on the one hand and of Vanbreuseghem on the other. Falck (1934) inoculated Sabouraud medium incubated at 37°C with *pyocyanic bacillus*, a staphylococcus, colibacillus, a *Monilia* and a member of the *Torulopodaceae*. After four days he inoculated into the centre of the culture thus obtained some *T. gypsum*, *steroid*, *T. violaceum*, *M. leucon* or *A. schoenii* respectively. In all cases there was an inhibitory action, the most resistant fungus being *M. leucon* and the colibacillus.

being the least active. On the other hand filtrates from cultures of the staphylococcus the colibacillus the proteanic bacillus and the Monilia added to Sabouraud's medium did not prevent the growth of the dermatophytes but rather seemed to favour it. In order to explain the inhibitory mechanism Falch concluded that it involved a direct action of the microbial agents upon the fungi by means of toxins or diastatic action.

In order to simplify the problem Vanbreuseghem (1949) limited it to study of the effect of *Staphylococcus aureus* upon *Trichophyton schoenleinii* and concluded that (i) *Staphylococcus aureus* exert an inhibitory action upon the growth of cultures of *T. schoenleinii* upon conservation media (ii) the inhibitory power varies according to the strains of staphylococcus and of *T. schoenleinii* employed (iii) the inhibitory power is found neither in heat sterilized cultures nor in extract or filtrates (iv) filtrates from staphylococcus cultures do not exercise a favourable influence upon the growth of *T. schoenleinii*.

It is thus evident that the problem of this particular type of antagonism *in vitro* is far from solution. Other somewhat different studies have been carried out with the aim of using the antifungal power of certain bacteria e.g. *Bacillus subtilis* (Lewis and Hopper 1949) and the proteanic bacillus (Balabanoff 1947).

The antimicrobial activity of the dermatophytes appears in general to be of little consequence. Ciferni (1948) who studied it in relation to staphylococci attributed a maximum activity to *Ichthyosporium violaceum* a medium activity to *F. interdigitale* *F. rubrum* *F. floccosum* and *T. gypsum* a little marked activity to *F. inguinale* and *A. gypsum* a small activity to *T. asteroides* and *A. gallinarum* and doubtful activity to *M. audouinii* and *A. schoenleinii*.

#### (b) Antagonism between Dermatophyte Colonies

This small problem is difficult to summarize because it has so far attracted the attention of research workers so little and the fact so far reported are disparate enough. One may begin with the following fact observed on many occasions and easy to repeat. If a dermatophyte such as *T. crateriforme* or *Sabouraudii* etc. (cf. Vanbreuseghem and Morianx 1949) is grown in an agar slant at two points separated by 1 cm toward the middle of the culture medium and half way up the agar slope it will be seen that whereas at first two colonies circular in form will appear as soon as they reach a diameter of 4 to 5 mm the growth will slow down where the edges of the colonies approach one another whilst it increases elsewhere. Between the two colonies there persists a narrow band in which neither colony will grow and it seems that each colony continues to develop in the direction where it finds most free space in front of it.

If instead of only two inoculations one is made every 10 or 2 mm down the whole length of the agar slant a long colony though tending to form a perfect circle will have its growth stopped by the two neighbouring

colonies and only those situated at the ends of the row will be able to develop fully towards the free agar.

These essential facts form a starting point for more extensive observation.

If instead of one dermatophyte different species are used various results may be obtained as has been shown by Dostrovsky and Raubitchek (1947). These authors consider that *T. gypsum* and *T. interdigitalis* do not inhibit one another and that *T. schoenleinii* and *T. violaceum* do exert an inhibitory action on one another but not on *T. purpureum* and that *Epidermophyton inguinale* prevents the growth of other dermatophytes (with the exception of *T. purpureum*) as soon as its colony reaches and surrounds them.

Spada (1949) studied the effect of broth culture filtrates of dermatophytes upon the development of other dermatophytes. He concludes that (i) such filtrates are fungistatic towards dermatophytes (ii) the fungistatic power is proportional to the age of the broth culture of the dermatophyte which yielded the filtrate (iii) all these filtrates are not active towards all strains and certain filtrates have a much wider spectrum of activity than others and (iv) the filtrate from one species is active towards several strains of the same species but not towards the one that yielded the filtrate.

It would seem that the fungistatic action of filtrates need not necessarily be related to the antagonism manifested by certain species. This aspect requires much more study before any general conclusion can be drawn.

### (c) Mixed Infections

The culture of samples from a diseased region usually results in the isolation of only one dermatophyte species. However, few authors have drawn attention to the isolation from the same lesion of several (usually two) species of dermatophytes: see Catani (1937), Mushkatblitt (1941), Franks and Rosenbaum (1950), Loewenthal (1948), Vanbreuseghem and Morame (1948), Milochertich (1938), Cawley and Horne (1949), Tanaka (1949), Blank (1911, 1911b) and Sabouraud himself (1910).

The number of published instances probably does not reach a hundred and the causes of the effect are quite obscure. Before commenting upon the rarity of these mixed infections, information is required as to whether their real frequency, which is unknown, is less than that of possible infections by each of the isolates: in other words, out of 100 individuals with favus, how many would have been infected by the *T. violaceum* found on one of them in association with *T. schoenleinii* if none had had the favus infection. In the absence of data, no answer to this question is forthcoming.

3. Experimental Inoculation. Inoculation of dermatophytes into laboratory animals is rarely used for the identification of the fungus but usually to study immunity and the nature of the pular lesion.

The guinea pig is the preferred animal and has been the most used. The disease develops in it 1 day after an incubation period of at least 10 days; there is little to see for a month after the inoculation. All dermatophyte species do not give the same results. Some such as the



Fig. 3

Guinea pig inoculated with *T. rubrum* per se for 1 month. The lesion is still present after 1 month.

*Ctenomyces* are always inoculated successfully whilst others give inconsistent results or failure. Inoculation experiments with glaucous colonies rarely profitable.

Inoculation techniques vary little. All aim at an intimate contact between the skin of the guinea pig and the dermatophyte for the inoculation to have some chance of success. Sabouraud advocated the introduction of a parasitized hair; to a small wound in the skin of the guinea pig, or by rubbing a ruled culture over the skin. Talbot, Monilia (Cabral) (1911) emphasized the particularly difficult inoculation of *T. ferrugineum* into the guinea pig by means of the scab produced by erythrocutaneous. Our own preference is for Rye's method (1911).

which is simple and which we found effective. According to Ibbotson. A pulverized portion of a fully developed (3 week) culture on S. boumoud agar is removed and mixed in a mortar with small quantity of honey. The virulent paste is applied to a healthy guinea pig over a piece of skin with the dimensions of a five franc piece and simply cut with the scissors. The rod is the only instrument necessary for this application. The resultant infection is constant and I have had no failure amongst 4 guinea pigs inoculated. It must be noted however that this consistency of Ibbotson's result was due to the fact that he worked with *Ctenomyces griseus* and all other species do not work so well.

The age of the culture used for inoculation seems to be of some importance though no general data is available on this. After failure in our attempt to inoculate guinea pigs with young cultures of *Trichophyton soudanense* (Vanbreuseghem 1949) we recalled Caturus' success in inoculating the dermatophyte into guinea pigs and Algerian monkey by using old cultures. Repetition of our experiments with old cultures transformed failure into success.

The effect of inoculation of the guinea pig with a dermatophyte are apparent from the seventh to the tenth days when erythema and desquamation are evident. Examination of the scales reveals mycelial filament and little later the hairs are matted. These fall eventually. Towards the third or fourth week the only sign of the inoculation is a glabrous plaque over which the hair soon grows again.

**4. Culture of Dermatophytes *in vitro* on Isolated Hair.** According to Vanbreuseghem (1949) this culture method permits the fact to be established independently of morphological characters that the isolate is indeed a dermatophyte. From the 10 days after the introduction of a suspected growth upon hair the destruction of the hair by the fungus becomes apparent either by destruction of the cortex toward the centre or by the formation of perforation organs which enter the hair and divide into many segments. Vanbreuseghem in applying this technique to the study of numerous dermatophyte species has shown that most of them can produce such lesions and that they stand alone amongst the fungi in this respect. This is a new diagnostic method is reliable and a useful technique for studying the microscopic morphology of the fungi.

**5. Wood's Light.** This type of light results when ultra violet rays of wavelength 3650 Å approximately pass through glass filter—Wood filter—containing nickel oxide. In the dark this radiation causes various substances to fluoresce. Margat and Devle discovered that hair infected by ringworm fluoresces in Wood's light. This is consequently used in diagnosis in following the treatment of patient and in the detection of sources of contamination.

When a hunk's head affected by microsporia is examined in Wood's light the patches of *Trichophyton* exhibit a greenish fluorescence. Infected hairs isolated amongst healthy ones or which have fallen on the clothes are easily recognized.

of the urticaria type or a retarded reaction of a tuberculin type. This reaction appears immediately after the injection. It is less frequent than the retarded reaction which commences after 24 hours and takes the form of a papule surrounded by an erythematous zone sometimes reaching 10 cm in diameter. The reaction reaches its maximum toward the second or third day and usually disappears toward the fourth or fifth day sometimes later leaving a darkish pigmentation and a slight desquamation. This local reaction may be accompanied by a general one—a moderate temperature discomfort polymuclear neutrophilia and relative leucopenia and a regional reaction (inflammatory conditions at the site of the mycosis). In non-sensitive individual the injection of trichophytin produces a lymphocytosis (cf. Casals et al.).

All dermatophytes do not sensitize equally. Individuals with favus for example even when the attack is very serious show no reaction. Strong sensitization accompanying dermatophytic of animal origin. *Trichophyton rubrum* very little whilst *Epidermophyton floccosum* is known to be one of the most active sensitizers.

The trichophytin reaction has only one group specificity, i.e. it can be induced by trichophytin prepared from any dermatophyte in a person affected by a very different dermatophyte. Its diagnostic value is thus very limited. It is positive in a certain number of individuals apparently free from dermatophyte infections. Mukatblitt and Director (1933) found it to be positive in 181 (60.3 per cent) out of 300 clinically attacked by a dermatophyte infection and in only 2 (4 per cent) out of 50 apparently unaffected individuals. It is generally admitted that there is a higher percentage of positive reaction in the control experiment the result of American workers are in any case corrected by the fact that the percentage of positive reactors reaches 7.3 per cent in cases where clinical diagnosis was confirmed by microscopic examination or culture and falls to 4 per cent in those cases where this examination was negative.

A positive reaction may be found ten years after the infection which caused it.

Sensitivity to trichophytin can be passively transmitted by injecting serum from a positive reactor into the skin of a negative reactor (Prausnitz-Kustner phenomenon). The reaction would not mature in using the serum of an individual giving an immediate reaction of the urticaria type. According to Tilson and Huppert (1919) the retarded reaction—tuberculin type—is the first to appear marked by the titular antibody. The precocious reaction—urticarian type—appears later and is rendered obvious by the circulating antibodies.

Once a source of dermatophyte infection is installed in a part of an organism it can move for a certain distance but besides the lesion produced by the immediate extension of the parasite certain others which Bruno Bloch gave the name trichophytoid appear at a distance. Usually appearing on the tenth day of the infection (called trichophytoid).

correspond to a state of sensitivity induced by trichophytin in fact it is agreed that they appear only in positive reactors.

Trichophytids arise abruptly and exhibit a symmetrical distribution. They have a variable appearance: knotted erythema, scarlatiniform exanthema, polymorphic erythema, erythematopustular eruption, dyshidrosis, etc. Injection of trichophytin in a person with trichophytid produces at the position of the injection trichophytids with the same clinical aspect as the pre-existing ones.

The exact cause of trichophytids is still unknown. It is thought that they may arise through the passage of the fungus through the blood or of sensitising substances produced in the centre of dermatophyte infection. The symmetrical disposition of the trichophytids suggest that they originate from the blood. The fact that in certain cases it has proved possible to isolate the fungus from the bloodstream of patients with trichophytid favours the parasitic nature of their formation. On the other hand the existence of a toxin in the blood has never been demonstrated (Peck 1940). Certain writers hold that trichophytids may arise by the contact of healthy but sensitized skin with the seat of the infection but the characteristic symmetry of the lesions opposes this view.

Trichophytids are usually sterile and nearly all attempts to culture from them have failed. Moreover it must be admitted that the fact that lesions yield cultures is proof that they cannot be called trichophytids.

The trichophytid concept has rapidly become very popular. From there it has been easy to pass to that of *idles* in general and the microbe in particular to designate all lesions of an allergic nature appearing at a distance from a seat of infection responsible for them. According to Peck (1940) the following are the criteria which permit a diagnosis of microbe —

(i) The organism is possible must be demonstrated in what is considered to be a classical manifestation of the disease e.g. lesion on Athlete's foot.

(ii) The organism isolated must be pathogenic. This however is not absolutely essential.

(iii) A reaction similar to that of tuberculin or trichophytin must be detectable.

(iv) What is regarded as a microbe must frequently accompany the primary lesion.

(v) The same organism as is isolated from the primary lesion must be obtainable by haemoculture. (It is feared that this criterion is however only seldom criticised or verifiable.)

(i) The microbe must appear after the primary lesion.

(ii) The microbes are usually sterile.

(iii) The diagnosis of *idles* is supported by —

(i) Their appearance in the form of multiple disseminated elements.



(b) a tendency toward the asymmetrical disposition of the element

(c) a tendency towards spontaneous recovery after healing of the primary centre of infection

From this idea of cutaneous trichophytid there is a tendency to pass to that of vascular lesion. Even though the nature of the former seems to be readily acceptable much has still to be done before there can be any conviction about the latter. Peck (1930) divided the trichophytid into four groups—

#### I Epidermic trichophytid (attacking the epidermis)

(a) Eczematoid (dyshidrotic)

(b) Ichthyoid

(c) Parakeratous

(d) Psoriasisform

#### II Cutaneous trichophytid (particularly attacking the papillary body)

##### A Diffuse forms—

(a) Scarletiform exanthemas and enanthemas

(b) Erythrodermic

##### B Circumscribed and discrete forms—

(a) Follicular localizations usually benign

(b) Localizations not exclusively follicular—maculose papulose and ven exudative eruptions

(c) Erythroid forms

#### III Subcutaneous trichophytid (hypodermic nodules of knotted erythema type)

(a) Acute form tending to heal

(b) Chronic form tending to increase

#### IV Vascular trichophytids

(a) Venous phlebitis migrans

(b) Capillary urticaria

(c) Purpura

The idea of vascular trichophytid seems to lack any firm support. Peck however goes so far as to affirm his mycetozymic phlebitiform rashes which he attributed to vascular trichophytid (claim of relation upon the causal relationship between the dermatophyte infection and Thrombo Angitis Obliterans have either been forgotten or reported with very little confidence. They may usefully be recalled because of their theoretical interest and because they merit verification. Thompson (1911) was the first to attempt to establish a relationship between Athlete's foot and Thrombo Angitis Obliterans (T.O.). At almost the same time (1911)

Meyer Naede published his observations of 30 patients with T O 98 (93 per cent) were suffering from Athlete's foot and in 30 of these the dermatophyte infection was imported. Observation of 30 control cases revealed the existence of dermatophyte infections in 22 (73 per cent) of which 9 were of serious nature. Cutaneous reaction with trichophytin was positive in 14 patients suffering from T O (80 per cent) and notably in 1 patient clinically free from Athlete's foot whereas only 6 of the controls (20 per cent) reacted to trichophytin. Ten patients were observed during acute attack of T O the attack was preceded by aggravation of the Athlete's foot in 7 of them. Meyer Naede vainly attempted to explain the predominance of T O in males though females are equally susceptible to Athlete's foot on the grounds that this disease is usually less serious in women and less frequently accompanied by a positive trichophytin reaction. Reis and Graham (1946) using technique devised by Reis (1944) were unable to detect scarification in estrated rabbits infected by *T. purpuraceum* for 1½ years. More recently Holman (1947) claimed to have obtained interesting results by treating two cases of T O with trichophytin injections.

So far as we know the problem rests at this point it would not have been presented had not certain clinical facts recently observed by us given them a possible clue.

9 *Therapeutic Utilization of Trichophytin* Cutaneous sensitivity towards the injection of trichophytin only develops if dermatophytes parasitize the skin (Bulzberger 1940) it does not appear even if the dermatophyte is found in deeply seated organs. Rivalier (1929) observed in the guinea pig the formation of a tumorous subcutaneous nodule after inoculation by a living *Trichophyton* without any kind of resultant immunity or allergy. Rivalier has on the other hand attempted unsuccessfully to desensitize guinea pigs by means of intradermal injections of trichophytin. This worker (1936) thus considers the therapeutic action of trichophytin to be illusory.

These facts and other analogous ones have discredited trichophytin the possessor of antigenic properties and have caused the substance to be regarded only as a reaction.

It is however to be noted that repeated injections of trichophytin terminated without accompanying cutaneous reactions even if at the time of the first injections they induced considerable reactions. The conclusion would not hold good and it would appear to be impossible to sensitize man or animals to trichophytin by repeated injection of the substance. Rivalier (1929) wrote "It may well be that trichophytin—analogue in this respect to tuberculin—behaves as passive antigen capable of being used for the detection of a pre-existing state of sensitization but incapable of inducing similar state. However like tuberculin trichophytin is able to bring about desensitization and as such deserves to rank in the therapeutic arsenal against dermatophyte









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## CHAPTER IX

# Haplomycosis

EMMONS (1948) gave the name haplomycosis to a fungal disease of rodent caused by *Haplosporangium parvum* Emmons and Ashburn 194. This organism was isolated from the lungs of 64 per cent of the pocket mice (*Perognathus*) examined by Emmons and Ashburn (1944) whilst investigating the incidence of *Coccidioides immitis* amongst the rodent in the region of San Carlos, Arizona. Other rodents were found to be naturally infected (e.g. *Dipodomys*, *Citellus* etc). In Canada Dowling (194) found 14 infected animals out of 273 rodents taken in Alberta. Characteristic spherules were encountered in the lungs. Thirteen of the infected animals were *Peromyscus* (*Peromyscus maniculatus borealis* white footed deer mice) and one was a red squirrel (*Sciurus hudsonicus baileyi*). Of these 14 cases, *Haplosporangium parvum* was isolated from 6. Whereas in Arizona the greatest dimension of fungal cell obtained was  $45\mu$  in Alberta spherules as large as  $270\mu$  with wall thickness 8 to  $10\mu$  were seen.

The lesions in rodent haplomycosis are discrete and confined to the lung tissues. They usually form a poorly developed granuloma. Antigenic lesions were experimentally reproduced by intranasal inoculation into white mice by Ashburn and Emmons (1945). The experimental lesion however exhibited a tendency towards spontaneous regression after 4 to 6 months. Ashburn and Emmons nevertheless consider them to be more than a mere tissue reaction in response to the presence of foreign bodies. They support their view as follows: (i) by the fact that killed spores do not produce this reaction by the appearance of a perivascular lymphocytic infiltration at a distance from the granulomatous focus. (ii) by the lack but regular growth of the lesions for 4 or 6 months.

Within the tissues of naturally infected rodent the pathogen appears as a rounded cell which attains a diameter of 10 to  $14\mu$ . A noted feature of these dimensions may be very much greater. Fruiting tubercles are characteristic of *Coccidioides immitis* but have not been observed. The protoplasm dense non vacuolated and basophilic. In the lungs of experimentally infected mice the fungal structure attained a diameter of  $40\mu$  after two months. These spherules are characterized by a thick membrane having several layers. This includes a large ectoplasmic nucleus 5 to  $10\mu$  wide containing a basophilic nucleolus. The outer membrane. There is no endospore formation. In short the spherules in the form of *Haplosporangium parvum* resemble young spherules of *Coccidioides immitis*.

On an acid dextro agar *H. parvum* grows more slowly than *C. immitis* and at first appears as a glabrous and colourless disc. The centre and then the periphery rather rapidly becomes downy. The down which is at first white brown with age. Numerous individual variations may be found from strain to strain certain colonies remaining wholly or partly glabrous. The but slightly segmented mycelium is rather well branched. The branches arise at random from the main hypha without any reference to septation. The hyphae are at least  $1\mu$  in diameter and occasionally may attain  $4\mu$ .

The spores are somewhat rounded 3 to  $3.5\mu$  in diameter with an apical membrane though older spores may have a completely smooth wall. They are borne singly or in short chains of two or three at the end of hyphae or upon more or less branched lateral sporophores. Emmerson and Ashburn (1941) regard these spores as mono-sporous sporangia or sporangia which they call conidia. These conidia are attached to hyphae or conidiophores by a delicate filament from which they are separated at maturity by a septum.

Dowding has obtained laboratory cultures on soil agar from Canadian strains and has evidence that the sporangia are not readily detachable from their sporophores but are very adherent. She considers it probable when they die, they burrow.

*H. pleuropneumoniae parvum* belongs to the genus *Haplosporangium* Thaxter 1914 containing three known species namely *H. b. parvum* Thaxter *H. decipiens* Thaxter both isolated from horse dung and *H. lignicola* Martin 1937 isolated from rotten wood. *H. parvum* is differentiated from these three species by its much smaller spores.

Dowding (1947) believes that *Blaschkeia dermatitidis* and *Histoplasma capsulatum* may have an affinity with *Haplosporangium parvum* (considering *Coccidioides immitis* might have less obvious connections with these except for the fact that Emerson considers it to be a Phycomycete with mono-sporous sporangia though he has obtained from cultures sporangia enclosing two or three spores).

Emmerson and Ashburn (1941) prepared a substance called haplosporidin which produced a positive reaction in 29 out of 77 individuals who reacted positively to coccidioidin.

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## CHAPTER X

### *The Histoplasmoses*

It is possible to distinguish human histoplasmosis or Darling disease, epizootic lymphangitis of the Equidae and perhaps histoplasmosis of rodents. The first of these will be dealt with more fully than the other two which will be only outlined.

#### A HISTOPLASMOSIS IN MAN

##### Definition

Histoplasmosis is a mycosis of the reticulo-endothelial system caused by *Histoplasma capsulatum* Darling, 1906. It is characterized by anaemia, leucopenia and hepatosplenomegaly. The denomination of this mycosis has rarely been in question; it is sometimes called Darling disease.

##### Historical

Histoplasmosis was first recognized by Darling, in 1906 whilst seeking cases of kala-azar in the region of the Isthmus Isthmus. The organism found in the tissues was regarded as a protozoan and named *Histoplasma capsulatum* by Darling in 1906 when he discovered two new cases. In 1913 da Poche Lima in a comparative study of sections from histoplasmosis lymphangitis of solipeds and kala-azar came to the conclusion that the agent of histoplasmosis was not a protozoan but a fungus. The fourth case of histoplasmosis, the first to be found after Darling's report, was described by Ruky and Watson in 1920. It was not until 1934 however that Monbrun confirmed da Poche Lima's findings by cultivating the pathogen from the blood of a young child whom Dodd and Tomlin (1934) had recognized during his lifetime to be subject to histoplasmosis. The mycological study of the organism carried out by de Monbrun merely left to his successors the problem of its systematic classification. De Monbrun contributed further essential facts by isolating the pathogen from a dog and demonstrating that it may be inoculated into young puppies. This author further proposed that the name Darling histoplasmosis should be replaced by Darling's cytomycosis. Further contributions to our knowledge of histoplasmosis were made by Van Peltus, Denson and Hollinger (1941) and also Zarafonetis and Lundberg (1941) who demonstrated the cutaneous sensitivity to histoplasmin of patients suffering from histoplasmosis; these authors regarded this reaction as specific. The important work of Fennell and his school on the etiology of the disease will be given later.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

Like the other great visceral mycoses histoplasmosis is rare in the literature recording about 100 cases. It attacks without racial distinction individuals of two age groups—early infancy and the fourth fifth and sixth decades. Whereas children are affected regardless of sex histoplasmosis in adults affects twice as many men as women. There is a slight preponderance of cases amongst agricultural workers. The youngest case on record is undoubtedly that of Schlumberger and Service (1944) who diagnosed histoplasmosis *pre mortem* (by sternal puncture) and *post mortem* in a male child seven weeks old on entering hospital who died two weeks later from hepatosplenomegaly and anaemia.

The histoplasmosis cases are mainly found in the states of the Middle West of the U.S.A. (Missouri Minnesota Michigan) but it is a disease of world wide distribution. Cases are on record from the following regions: South Africa South America (Argentina Colombia Brazil Uruguay) England Austria Hawaii Java Mexico the Philippines the Sudan Venezuela.

### Etiology

The etiology of histoplasmosis is not yet known with certainty but work in progress suggests that it is a disease of rodent which may be transmitted to dogs cats and man. De Monbrun (1939) first discovered a case of histoplasmosis in the dog—he showed the strain of *Histoplasma capsulatum* isolated to be identical in all respects with the isolated from man and that it could be inoculated by mouth to young dog. In 1941 Emmon, Bell and Olson published an account of their work in Virginia. They captured 160 rodents in the Loudoun County region where four cases of human and three of canine histoplasmosis had been recorded and demonstrated the presence of *Histoplasma capsulatum* in one mouse and ten rat. Large anatomico-pathological lesions were not found in the animals from which the fungus was isolated and the parasite was mainly isolated from the liver and the spleen.

The method used by Emmons and his co-workers in making these isolations consisted of performing an autopsy with sterilized instrument upon newly killed animal—the abdomen having first been covered with a solution of cresol. Fragment of viscera (pleen liver suprarenal lungs bladder kidney) were then cultured on Sabouraud's medium whilst other fragments of the same viscera were preserved in formalin until after to 4 weeks incubation at 30°C the result of the culture was positive or negative.

Olson, Bell and Emmon showed at about the same time (1947) that they could obtain cultures of *H. capsulatum* from eroded tick (*Dermacentor variabilis*) previously fed on a dog naturally infected with histoplasmosis. However four dogs placed in contact with the first one showed no disease symptoms.

In 1949 Emmons doubtless inspired by his success in his study of

coccidioidomycosis isolated two strains of *H. capsulatum* from 387 specimens of earth taken from a farm where he had captured 7 rats infected with histoplasmosis. Further he demonstrated the presence of macroconidia or echinulate chlamydospores characteristic of *Histoplasma capsulatum* in aqueous suspensions of the two specimens which yielded these strains. Thus it is evident that this parasite find in soil a medium favourable to its reproduction in the saprophytic state.

### Pathogenic Agent

The binomial *Histoplasma capsulatum* was proposed by Darling in 1906 when the organism was known only in its parasitic form and was moreover regarded as a protozoan. In spite of this confusion at the beginning there is no good reason for not retaining Darling's name for the agent of histoplasmosis. De Monbreun also took this view when as the first to isolate the parasite he furnished a complete description of it.

However the following synonyms are encountered in the literature—

<i>Cryptococcus capsulatus</i> (Castellani and Chalmers 1933)	<i>Fonsecaea capsulata</i> (Darling) Moore 1934
<i>Tetradomyces capsulatus</i> Aluwé 1933	<i>Serpulina</i> sp. H. Mann and Schenken 1934
<i>Fonsecaea periformis</i> Moore 1934	<i>Histoplasma periformis</i> (Moore) Dodge 1935

Stained by Wright or Giemsa *H. capsulatum* appears in the blood marrow or the sputum as a round or oval body with a greatest width of 1 to 4  $\mu$ . In most cases it is an intracellular inclusion within the cells of the reticulo-endothelial system in macrophages and giant cells. It is enveloped by a refringent capsule of variable thickness which does not stain by the usual procedures. One end of the cell is often less thick than the other, buckling occurs at this acuminate extremity. It is the occurrence in the widest region of a crescent shaped mass of chromatin that supports a resemblance between *H. capsulatum* and a *Leishmania*. However the absence of blepharoplast distinguishes it from a Leishman Donovan body.

The isolation by Monbreun of the parasite in pure culture from the blood of a child infected with histoplasmosis demonstrated the dimorphism of the organism which has a yeast like aspect in the parasitic condition but is filamentous in culture. It is in fact possible to obtain both phases in culture. The yeast like phase called YP by American workers has the same morphology as that of the organism in the tissues whilst the mycelial phase (MP) has the aspect of filamentous fungus.

There is no outstandingly characteristic feature that distinguishes colonies of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The yeast like phase appears as small brilliant whitish colonies whilst the mycelial phase appears as whit down which assumes a brownish colour after two weeks.

The colonies of the mycelial phase are made up of segmented branched



hyphae  $2.5 \mu$  wide. Besides the ordinary chlamydospores often in chains they also give rise to large round cells  $20 \mu$  in diameter by the expansion of terminal or lateral filaments. These cells contain numerous fat globules. Their wall thickens and develops excrescences very irregular in form and length which may reach to  $6 \mu$ . These rounded cells with rough and uneven walls form the dominant feature of the mycelial phase of *H. capsulatum* they are called echinulate chlamydospores stalagmospores (Ciferri and Redaelli) and macroconidia (Emmons). The echinulate chlamydospores arise both on aerial and vegetative mycelia. In fact various types have been described. According to Howell (1939) sporulation of the mycelium gives rise to (i) spherical or pyriform tuberculate

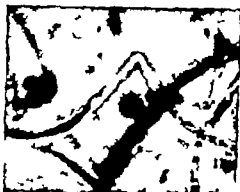


FIG. 40

*Histioglyphus capsulatus* F. hinalist. Hyphae sporulating on 10% glucose medium at ordinary temperature ( $\times 1000$ ). (Reproduced from Furl. *Histioglyphus* in Brand's *the* *Microbiology*).

spores  $10$  to  $20 \mu$  in diameter either sessile or borne upon short pedicel of the aerial mycelium (ii) round or oval spores  $5$  to  $10 \mu$  upon short pedicels of the submerged mycelium and (iii) round or oval spores sessile or borne upon short pedicels of the aerial or submerged mycelium. Howell and others consider that the two last spore types are only transitional phases in the formation of the tuberculate spores which are the mature forms. Whilst recognizing that the structure of the hinalist chlamydospores does not permit of their being regarded as ascus-like, Monbreun calls them ascus-like bodies or ascus-like cells. Monbreun appears to have been the only one to regard them as ascus-like.

The mycelial phase always appears in the absence of any particular precautions and the yeast-like phase always tends to pre-empt it and it grows slightly acid pH (6.5) slightly elevated temperature ( $30^\circ\text{C}$ ) and abundant aeration are favourable factors. The mycelial phase always appears on Sabouraud's medium on dextrose, *gar potato* & *latum* & on bread whatever the incubation temperature.

De Monbreun drew attention to the need for using hydrochloric and not acetic acid to adjust the pH of the culture medium. In fact acetic acid as well as small amount of sodium acetate prevent the development of the fungus.

Colonies of the yeast-like phase are made up of oval cells 3 to 4.5  $\mu$  long which bud only at their acuminat end the buds remaining attached for some time to the mother cell by a thin filament often as much as  $\mu$  long. In stained preparations the chromatin is in the form of a crescent near the rounded end of the cell. There is thus no essential difference in the appearance of *H. capsulatum* in the tissue and in culture of the yeast-like phase.

It is just as difficult to get and keep the yeast-like phase as it is easy to get in the mycelial phase. There appear to be four necessary conditions: (1) a temperature of at least 37°C. for below that temperature the cultures revert inevitably to the mycelial phase; (2) a medium rich in protein, preferably containing rabbit blood or that of another animal, human blood being excellent; (3) a high degree of humidity, drying, causing reversion to the mycelial phase; and (4) a factor the nature of which is not yet fully determined but which probably involves the level of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the atmosphere surrounding the culture. It has hitherto been correctly thought necessary to seal the culture tubes hermetically to obtain the yeast-like phase of *H. capsulatum*. This doubtless not only ensures the maintenance of a certain degree of humidity but also establishes a sufficiently high concentration of CO in the cultures, a factor of even greater importance. Indeed according to B. Lien the yeast-like phase of *H. capsulatum* as well as that of *H. farciminosum* may be obtained by culturing in an atmosphere containing 1 to 20 per cent CO. The CO may not be replaced by nitrogen and a low range of the percentage of CO<sub>2</sub> to below 15 per cent causes reversion to the mycelial phase.

In order to obtain the yeast-like phase other less obvious conditions are necessary. In particular it is essential to culture on solid media. Salmon (1947) was unable to obtain the yeast-like phase on liquid media such as broth serum or broth containing 1 per cent serum. He obtained it however on a semi-liquid medium with the following composition—

Proteose peptone Dif	10 g
Neo peptone Dif	3.2 g
Tryptone	3.2 g
Glucose	8 g
Sodium chloride	5 g
Dextrose monohydrate phosphate	20 g
Agar	1.5 g
Distilled water q	1 000 ml

On this medium the optimum pH for growth is between 6.1 and 8.1. The temperature of 37°C. is essential for at 2 or 31 there is a reversion to the mycelial phase. Optimum viscosity is obtained with 1.75 g. of agar.

in 1 000 ml but the agar may be replaced by a silicon salt. According to Salvin perfect development is obtained under anaerobic conditions in mixtures of 10% 40 and 50 per cent of  $\text{CO}_2$  with air and least in 100 per cent oxygen. Salvin claims that this medium is better for retaining the yeast like phase than one containing blood.

Further all workers agree that the yeast like phase can only be maintained by frequent transfer every 3 to 4 days.

As has been seen the addition of blood to the medium is not absolutely necessary. The yeast like phase can be obtained on a serum medium or on Petragnam's medium without malachite green.

The transition from the yeast like to the mycelial phase has been observed by de Monbreun by transferring a culture of the yeast like phase to an agar plate (Sibouraud's medium) at laboratory temperature. The yeast like forms enlarge and round up until they reach 4 to 5 times their original diameter. These cells give rise to a mycelial filament which segments and yield secondary filaments.

A number of workers have been interested in obtaining the yeast like phase from the mycelial phase with rather contradictory results. Only Ciferri and Redaelli (1934) and Conant (1941) appear to have succeeded in culturing *H. capsulatum* at 37°C on a blood medium in sealed tubes. According to Campbell (1947) it is quite easy to recover the yeast like phase by transferring every 2 to 3 days from the mycelial form kept at 37°C to the following medium which is a modification of Francis's medium (cf. sporotrichosis)—

Veal broth	1 000 ml
Rabbit or horse blood	50 ml
Peptone	10 g
Glucose	10 g
Sodium chloride	5 g
Cystine or cystine hydrochloride	1 g
Agar	50 g

The agar salt and peptone are added to the broth which is heated until the agar dissolves. The cystine is dissolved in sufficient water and solution to adjust the pH to 6 to 8 then added to the mixture. This is sterilized at 120°C for twenty minutes and after cooling to 40°C the blood and glucose are added under sterile conditions. Shake repeatedly for 3 hours at 60°C and tube out.

It is certain however that when only the mycelial phase is added the easiest way to recover the yeast like phase is to inoculate into an experimental animal and to commence isolation of the yeast like phase from the diseased organ.

### Symptomatology

It is difficult to give a precise picture of all the symptoms of histoplasmosis but in some it is worth recalling its similarity to kala-azar.

g anaemia leucopenia splenomegaly emaciation and prolonged fever. The disease persists from some three weeks to 8 months and in exceptional cases for 4 8 10 and even 16 years.

In a child the most important signs are temperature digestive troubles and diarrhoea followed by obvious hypertrophy of the spleen and liver and also of the lymph nodes. Death follows a state of advanced cachexia.

In adults the disease often takes a slower course and extensive involvement of certain organs may give a strong bias and render diagnosis difficult. According to Miller *et al* (1947) 50 per cent of the cases show lesions of the skin and of the mucous membranes. According to these workers the cutaneous mucous manifestations may be grouped in 5 categories—

1 Ulceration and granulomatous tumours of the buccal mucosa (29 of 4 patients exhibiting cutaneous lesions).

2 Papules patches cutaneous ulceration (11 out of 4 patients).

3 Paronychia lesions capable of ulceration (1 patient).

4 Abscesses furunculoid lesions (rare).

5 Localized or generalized dermatitis (rare).

Pulmonary manifestations are frequently noted as well as gastro-intestinal trouble such as diarrhoea vomiting haemorrhage perforation. According to Parsons and Zarafonetti (1941) lesions of the middle ear were found in 8 cases and in one of Crumrine's cases the parasite was found in the pus from an otitis media.

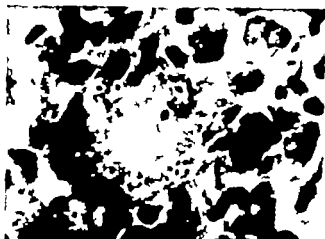
Other diseases able to reach the reticulo-endothelial system may be found associated with histoplasmosis. This is particularly true for tuberculosis (5 cases) and Hodgkin's disease (1 case). Confusion with the latter is possible even from the histological standpoint and several authors (Miller *et al*) insist upon the presence of cells strongly reminiscent of Sternberg-Reed cells in tumours attacked by histoplasmosis.

Two good fundamental works on the symptomatology of histoplasmosis are those of Parsons and Zarafonetti (1941) and of Lark (1948).

### Histopathology

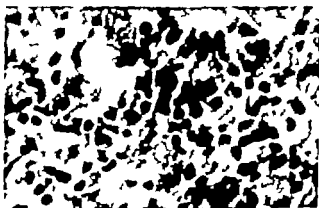
*Histoplasma capsulatum* is essentially an intracellular parasite found mainly within the cells of the reticulo-endothelial system. Its presence conditions the formation of granulomatous processes ending with necrosis ulceration or calcification. The parasite is found most readily in the liver spleen lung lymph nodes and bone marrow. Duart (1941) demonstrated it in the central nervous system and the meninges. He considers that if the parasite has not been more often described in the encephalon and its annexes it is because it has not been systematically looked for.

Destruction of hepatic cells with centrolobular necrosis has been observed in the liver. The sinuses are filled with tightly packed macrophages as well as Kupffer cells of the parasites.



F 41

*Histoplasma capsulatum* (antigen) containing numerous  
 cells of *H. capsulatum* (H. produced from *Trichophyton* H. t.  
 plasma in H. and with utilization of permeation)



F 42

*Histoplasma capsulatum* (antigen) containing numerous  
 cells of *H. capsulatum* (H. produced from *Trichophyton* H. t.  
 plasma in H. and with utilization of permeation)

In the lung there is massive infiltration by large monocytes and the alveoli are collapsed.

It will be noted in general that the tissues are invaded by large mononuclear element and that there is no polymorph infiltration.

### Treatment

There is no effective therapy in histoplasmosis. However a few cases of recovery have been reported when sulphadiazine was used. It is interesting to note that Campbell and Shaw (1951) demonstrated the ineffectiveness of streptomycin injection in mice infected experimentally with *H. capsulatum* and this antibiotic has a stimulating action upon the mycelial phase *in vitro*. On the other hand the same authors showed that atabrine afforded partial protection to mice against *H. capsulatum*.

### Prognosis

The fatal prognosis in children must not be applied without reserve to adults. It seems that in certain cases the disease may become limited after a process of fibrosis. Some cases of recovery have been claimed but in practice these are better disregarded.

### Differential Diagnosis

Tuberculosis, leukaemia, kala-azar and Hodgkin's disease should be differentiated from histoplasmosis. There is a report of a wrong diagnosis of amoebiasis in a case in which intestinal troubles were predominant. There may be possible confusion with Hodgkin's disease on account of the presence of element resembling Sternberg-Reid cells in the tissue. Park (1948) reported the formation in the liver of accumulations of parasites strongly similar to the pseudo-cysts produced by toxoplasma. Quite clearly no clinical argument is likely to replace the demonstration of the parasite in smear preparations or sections or its isolation through culture.

### Laboratory Examination

The blood exhibits moderate anaemia of the hypochromic type with red blood count of 3 to 4 million per cmm. Leucopenia is frequent but not general and sometimes associated with a relative lymphocytosis.

The blood proteins show an alteration in the albumin globulin ratio with relative increase of the latter.

Albuminuria is frequent. The urine may yield red and white cells and the organism has been cultured from urine.

### Mycological Diagnosis

Mycological diagnosis in all cases searching for the pathogen and isolating it in culture.

1. Search for the organism in the blood is rarely successful for the histoplasmae are confined to the monocytes. It is more profitable to search

marrow obtained by sternal puncture. The same also applies to smear preparations made from sections of portions removed by biopsy. Staining of blood or marrow smears is carried out with Wright or Giemsa.

The demonstration of *H. capsulatum* in sections is effected by the usual basic stains namely cochin haematoxylin, Mason's trichrome, Van Gieson, Goodpasture-Cram-Weigert and Cramer. The capsule may be stained by Heidenhain and most silver impregnation methods.

For distinguishing histoplasma from leishmania Parè recommends the use of Gram's method as modified by Krajan (1917) or the Fochay method (1931). With Krajan the histoplasmas are violet or greenish blue whereas the leishmanias are pink red. With Fochay the histoplasmas are stained blue and the leishmanias mauve. It is noteworthy that the parasite form is Gram positive and slightly acid fast.

Isolation of the parasite by culture is undoubtedly the best method for diagnosing histoplasmosis. Parsons and Zarasenetis (1914) indicated that in 23 instances where the pathogen was cultured positive cultures were in 18 obtained from tissues, in 9 from blood and in one from marrow. It appears that whereas search for the pathogen in blood smears is usually negative it can be isolated often enough by blood culture.

Inoculation is carried out on Sabouraud's medium at 37°C or at 25°C on blood medium in sealed tubes. The culture tubes must be retained for four weeks on account of the slow development of the parasite.

In a case of generalized histoplasmosis Dublin, Culbertson and Friedman (1918) were twice able to culture the pathogen by removing 5 ml of blood in a syringe containing 1 ml of sodium citrate. The mixture was kept at laboratory temperature and two weeks after removal of the blood mycelium appeared above the layer of white globules.

### Experimental Inoculation

It is too frequently ignored that Dirlin, un成功地 attempted animal inoculation of histoplasmosis. Having failed to culture the organism he was limited to using infected human tissue as his source of material for inoculating guinea pigs. De Monbreun was more fortunate having at his disposal cultures of *H. capsulatum*. From the yeast-like phase and by means of intravenous injection he produced in two monkeys (Marmosets) lesions similar to those found in man and also marked anaemia, lymph node hypertrophy and hepato-splenomegaly. Death occurred 14 days after inoculation and the pathogen was recovered from the monocyte of the circulating blood during the life time of the animal but from the tissue after death. Failure attributed the onset of the mycelial phase to inoculate a monkey.

Inoculation of an animal with a culture from the mycelial phase is not like phase permit the recovery of the pathogen from various organs after several months. Except in certain cases however the lesion does not become generalized in man and in most cases the animal recovers. According to Emerson, Bell and Olson (1914) mice and guinea pigs do

not exhibit any further symptoms after the acute phase of the infection but it is possible two years after the inoculation to isolate the pathogen from the liver and spleen. The dog which is one of the animals spontaneously infected can easily be infected in the laboratory even through the digestive tract (De Monbreun). However the lesions do not become generalized. Brandt (1930) showed that it is possible to induce a generalized effect if the inoculation is preceded by X irradiation of the animal.

Catani (1941) working with an African strain observed no generalization in the mouse and the guinea pig but he was able to isolate the pathogen from the spleen two months after inoculation.

Allen (1948) inoculated histoplasmosis into mice and guinea pigs via the nostril and the ear and the result was positive in 70 per cent of the mice and 75 per cent of the guinea pigs respectively. He concluded that in nature infection occurs via these two routes.

The varying results obtained by different workers tend to support the view that there are considerable differences in the virulence of the different strains of *H. capsulatum*.

### Histoplasmin

First prepared in 1941 by Van Pern, Benson and H. Illinger histoplasmin is a metabolic product of *H. capsulatum* developed in the culture medium. Its intradermal injection produces reactions similar to those of tuberculin. It soon became apparent that histoplasmin inoculation not only gives a positive reaction in those attacked by histoplasmosis but also in apparently healthy individuals. Two sets of facts have emerged from the very numerous epidemiological studies that have attempted to clarify the real significance of this reaction—

1 The extent to which the histoplasmin reaction is positive varies according to the geographical origin of the individuals tested. Thus Reinmann and Price (1949) showed that whilst 78 per cent of the residents of Missouri gave a positive reaction the corresponding figures for Kentucky and Northern California were 9 to 11 per cent and only 3 per cent respectively. Those regions which yield the greatest number of reactors are also the ones which have the largest number of cases of histoplasmosis.

2 The percentage of positive reactions varies with the presence of pulmonary calcification in the individuals tested. In studying the value of the test with nurses Palmer (1941) showed that whereas 50 per cent of them as a whole reacted to histoplasmin the proportion was 85 per cent in those who had pulmonary calcification. Similarly from Tennessee residents Christie (1930) obtained 87 per cent of positive reactions in those with calcifications whilst in those without calcification the percentage was half as great. Further only 18.6 per cent of those with calcification reacted to tuberculin and the whole population gave only 18.6 per cent of reactors positive to tuberculin.



Olson Bell and Emmon (194 ) were however unable to establish a clear relationship between the presence of pulmonary calcification and the extent to which there is positive reaction to tuberculin or histoplasmin.

In any case conclusions drawn from many epidemiological investigations at present support the view that histoplasmosis exists in a mild form very much more widespread than the serious form recognized up to the present and that this mild form is in certain regions responsible for a great many cases of pulmonary calcification previously attributed to tuberculosis. Nevertheless the use of histoplasmin does not permit of diagnosis of histoplasmosis and there are still cross reactions between histoplasmin and blastomycin.

Prior Cole and Torbet (1940) claim however that this test has a specific value in the case of the dog.

### Histoplasmosis in Africa

As yet little attention has been paid to this question even though it possesses an interest out of proportion to the number of the cases reported namely — cases 1943 and 1946 (Duncan) 1 case in 1947 (Fries and Deloye) and other cases (Heriman and Aratas). This interest stems from two facts—

- 1 The lesions noted are mainly cidal abscesses some of which tend to heal.
- 2 The parasite recovered from the lesion has greater dimensions than those usually given ( $10\mu$  in diameter instead of 3 to  $5\mu$ ) and it is usually extracellular.

It is not unreasonable to speculate as to whether this is a distinct species. Catani (194 ) who made an exhaustive investigation of one of these African strains makes no special comment upon this apart from its poorly marked pathogenicity.

### Taxonomy

Moore (1934) erected the genus *Powderm* after having considered the echinulate chlamydospores to be asexual. However de Monbrun who first described them regarded them as no more than ascus-like bodies or ascus-like cells and it is generally agreed that they are not asexual.

In 1934 Ciferri and Redaelli proposed the family Histoplasmaaceae and reconsidered this question with Virocchi in 1938. These authors believed that the Histoplasmaaceae should be placed near the Nectariaceae (Ciferri and Redaelli 1939) and the Torulopsidaceae (Ciferri and Redaelli 1939) within the larger family of the Adulocaryaceae (Ciferri and Redaelli 1940). The Histoplasmaaceae comprise the single genus *Histoplasma* Durin, 1906 of which there are three species *H. capsulatum* Durin, 1906 *H. farciminosum* Rioluta and Mirelone 1887 and *H. m. m.* (Shortt) Ciferri and Redaelli 1934. The conception of Ciferri *et al.* is based essentially upon the yeast-like aspect of

*H. capsulatum* in its parasitic phase whereas when cultured the fungus has both a filamentous and a yeast like phase. In spite of objections Ciferri and Redaelli (1948) have maintained their point of view.

Hansenmann and Schenken (1934) having assigned a fungus isolated from a case of histoplasmosis to the genus *Sepedon* in Howell (1930-1940-1941) compared the morphology and physiology of *Histoplasma capsulatum* with various species of *Sepedonium* (*S. chrysospermum* and *S. xyloperum*) with *Stephanoma triscoccum* with *Chlamydomyces palmareum* and with *Mycogone perniciosa*. *Sepedon* in *chrysospermum* forms aleurospores identical with the echinulate chlamydospores of *H. capsulatum* and aliphilospores. *Sepedon* in *xyloperum* does not form phialospores and its aleurospores although similar in morphology to the echinulate chlamydospores of *H. capsulatum* are of different origin. *Stephanoma triscoccum* forms phialospores and its aleurospores are different from the chlamydospores of *H. capsulatum*. *Chlamydomyces palmareum* and *Mycogone perniciosa* form aleurospores and phialospores which seem to justify the assignment of these two species to the genus *Sepedon* in Howell concluded that the genus *Histoplasma* constitutes among the *Fungi imperfecti* a distinct genus possessing certain morphological affinities with the genera which he has studied.

From the facts here put forward it appears that the family Histoplasmaceae may be retained for the genus *Histoplasma* but it is absurd to assign this family to the Adelomachromycetaceae which are yeasts for the Histoplasmaceae are filamentous fungi with a yeast like form.

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## B. EPIZOOTIC LYMPHANGITIS IN SOLIPEDES

Epizootic lymphangitis in solipedes is a transmissible contagious and spontaneously curable disease caused by *Histoplasma farciminosum* (Rivolta and Micellone 1883) Ciferri and Ridaelli 1934. In the horse the ass and the donkey it produces nodular lesions often ulcerated which spread along the lymphatics and reach the ocular, nasal and buccal mucosa. The disease was originally centred on North Africa especially Algeria but from there many cases have reached a world wide dissemination since the First World War (1914-18).

The pathogen often referred to as *Cryptococcus farciminosus* (or *farcimosa*) was long thought to be a protozoan in 1912 Da Rocha Lima assigned it nearer to *Histoplasma capsulatum* suggesting at the same time the fungal nature of the two organisms. Attempts at culture have been made since 1891 by Marcon 1896 by T. Kishigo 1898 by Barubello and 1906 with a certain amount of success by San Felice but Negre and Boquet in 1918 obtained the first series of cultures and transmitted epizootic lymphangitis of the horse by their use. Some years later Bardelli (1914-1915 1926) in turn isolated the *Cryptococcus* inoculated his culture in the horse and even prepared a vaccine. Negre and Boquet and also Bardelli were able to culture the filamentous form of the pathogen by inoculating pus into a fairly simple medium such as Sabouraud with the addition of crushed lymph node (Negre and Boquet) or thymus (Bardelli) from the horse. Upon these media the yeast-like forms characteristic of the pathogen in the tissues enlarge and then give rise to mycelial filaments which yield chlamydospores and what Negre and Boquet called "external spores". The latter which are undoubtedly

## CHAPTER VI

# The Levuroses

### Introduction

The levuroses are diseases caused by true yeasts. There are two types of such disease, namely moniliasis caused by *Candida albicans* and torulosis or cryptococcosis caused by *Torulopsis neoformans*. As will be seen later there are certain other species of *Candida* besides *Candida albicans* which possess some pathogenicity, but in practice only *Candida albicans* and *Torulopsis neoformans* are of importance in this respect.

A precise definition of a yeast is not easy to give, though it is generally accepted that the yeasts are fungi which reproduce only by budding. But the ability of certain filamentous fungi (e.g. *Histioplasma*, *Sporotrichum*, *Blastomyces*) to reproduce by budding under certain conditions either in the saprophytic or the parasitic state renders this definition void. According to Skinner in Haver's work "The yeasts are true fungi of which the habitual and dominant developmental form is unicellular." Skinner thus clearly emphasizes the dominant morphology and not budding. On the other hand the ability of many yeasts to form a pseudo mycelium brings them nearer to the filamentous fungi even though the budding mode of formation of the pseudo mycelial filament distinguishes them from the characteristic germination of true mycelial filament. A Lindgren (1914) showed the budding process involved the extension of a tube from the central vacuole to a region of the cell wall which becomes thinner as it forms an excrescence upon the mother cell. Within this excrescence which later becomes the daughter cell the vacuolar tube penetrates and sets up the vacuole of the daughter cell. The two cells separate by a bival constriction at the identical position where the excrescence was formed. When having reached the size of the mother cell the daughter cell separates from it as a new yeast cell capable of producing similar buds which either separate or remain attached. If the daughter cell continues growth in one direction to form a filament which in turn may bud off others a pseudo mycelium results. The pseudo mycelium made up of filamentous and rounded elements in many complicated branch systems the morphology of which was regarded as sufficient basis by Langdon and Taker (1912) for the recognition of primary distinctions. Langdon and Taker (1913-40) gave the name blastomycosis (*blastomycosis*) to a pseudo germination process described in 1892 by Roux and Lacroix. In cultures of *Candida* there is the appearance



creation of the genus *Candida* whilst Stelling Dekker's work (1931) on the sporogenous yeast and the papers of Lodder (1934) and of Diddens and Lodder (1941) on the asporogenous yeast are noteworthy. Lodder and de Vinger (1947) have classified the asporogenous yeasts into two families the Rhodotorulaceae and the Torulopsidaceae. The Rhodotorulaceae are asporogenous yeasts which develop a red pigment of a carotinoid nature. These yeasts have neither pathogenic nor fermentative power. Very widespread in nature they are frequent contaminants of culture media inoculated with pathological product. The Torulopsidaceae as asporogenous yeasts is placed into two sub-families according to whether they form a pseudo mycelium (Mycotoruloidae) or not (Torulopsidoidae). The latter comprise six genera *Torulopsis*, *Pityrosporum*, *Mycoderma*, *Aloclera*, *Trigonopsis* and *Schwiebia* portion. Only the genus *Torulopsis* characterized by the formation of a thick capsule include a pathogenic species namely *Torulopsis neoformans* the agent of torulosis or cryptococcosis. The Mycotoruloidae comprise three genera *Candida*, *Trichosporon* and *Brettanomyces*. According to Langeron the genus *Trichosporon* which forms a true mycelium ought not to be classed with the yeast it includes the species *T. beigeli* the agent of the white piedra. The *Trichosporon* species are in any case distinct from those of *Candida* and *Brettanomyces* for they form arthrospores. The *Brettanomyces* species (cf. Custon 1940) are Mycotoruloidae distinguished by the oval form of their cell and intense acidification of the culture medium under aerobic conditions. They are of practical interest only to the fermentation industry (*Brettanomyces bruxellensis*, *B. lambicus*). The *Candida* species are Mycotoruloidae with the yeast form rounded or oval and the pseudo mycelium forming a complicated structure ornamented with elaborate whorls. Some *Candida* species are pathogenic the most important of these being *Candida albicans*. Diddens and Lodder have distinguished species of which 13 are saprophytes and 1 are pathogenic. The *Candida* species are distinguished from one another by their fermentative action on sugars and the nature of their sugar and nitrogen assimilation. Only the *albicans* group (*C. albicans*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. stellatoidea*, *C. truncata*) form chlamydospores. This character distinguishes them sharply from other Mycotoruloidae.

Skinner (1941) recognizes three families of imperfect yeast

1. The Sporobolomyetaceae which Stelling Dekker regards as basidiomycetes but which Skinner considers to be imperfect fungi probably related to the basidiomycetes.

The Rhodotorulaceae corresponding to the Rhodotorulaceae of Lodder.

The Torulopsidaceae correspond to the Torulopsidaceae of Lodder. The Torulopsidaceae are divided into two sub-families according to whether they form a pseudo mycelium (Mycotoruloidae) or not (Torulopsidoidae). The latter comprise six genera *Torulopsis*, *Pityrosporum*, *Mycoderma*, *Aloclera*, *Trigonopsis* and *Schwiebia* portion. Only the genus *Torulopsis* characterized by the formation of a thick capsule include a pathogenic species namely *Torulopsis neoformans* the agent of torulosis or cryptococcosis. The Mycotoruloidae comprise three genera *Candida*, *Trichosporon* and *Brettanomyces*. According to Langeron the genus *Trichosporon* which forms a true mycelium ought not to be classed with the yeast it includes the species *T. beigeli* the agent of the white piedra. The *Trichosporon* species are in any case distinct from those of *Candida* and *Brettanomyces* for they form arthrospores. The *Brettanomyces* species (cf. Custon 1940) are Mycotoruloidae distinguished by the oval form of their cell and intense acidification of the culture medium under aerobic conditions. They are of practical interest only to the fermentation industry (*Brettanomyces bruxellensis*, *B. lambicus*). The *Candida* species are Mycotoruloidae with the yeast form rounded or oval and the pseudo mycelium forming a complicated structure ornamented with elaborate whorls. Some *Candida* species are pathogenic the most important of these being *Candida albicans*. Diddens and Lodder have distinguished species of which 13 are saprophytes and 1 are pathogenic. The *Candida* species are distinguished from one another by their fermentative action on sugars and the nature of their sugar and nitrogen assimilation. Only the *albicans* group (*C. albicans*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. stellatoidea*, *C. truncata*) form chlamydospores. This character distinguishes them sharply from other Mycotoruloidae.

3 The Cryptococcaceae corresponding to the Torulopsidaceae of Duddens and Lodder. The Cryptococcaceae are divided into two subfamilies the Cryptococcoidae (Torulopsidoidae of Duddens and Lodder) and the Candidoidae (Mycotoruloidae of Duddens and Lodder). The Candidoidae is distributed amongst three genera. Form which produce blastospores only are put in the genus *Candida* or the genus *Brettanomyces* those which produce both blastospores and arthrospores are put in the genus *Trichosporon* those which produce arthrospores but no blastospores are excluded from the family. They include such organisms as *Crotonchium candidum* (Oudemansia).

In the case of imperfect yeast the species is based essentially on such biochemical characters as can be deduced from fermentation studies and the assimilation of sugars or of nitrogenous substances. Lanfear and Guerra reserve the name fermentation for the anaerobic breakdown of sugars accompanied by the formation of carbonic acid. The term sugar selectivity refers to the capacity of a yeast to metabolize this or that pure sugar. The English terms are gas production (C) and acid production (A). The assimilation of nitrogenous substances emphasizes the capacity of yeast to utilize one or another nitrogen compound generally an amino acid as their sole nitrogen source.

The stability of the fermentation characters of yeast has been much discussed. Most theories regard them as stable even when transition occurs from phase R to phase S. According to Lanfear and Guerra who are amongst the most recent supporters of this view apparent divergencies of result are due to three main causes—

1 The use of yeast strains contaminated by bacteria. These bacterial infections may persist for long time.

The use of mixed strains. It often happens that a number of yeast strains the colonies from which represent mixture rather than single strain are isolated from pathological product. Fermentation studies from these give aberrant result unless the mixture should include symiotic and asymiotic yeasts.

3 The use of impure sugars.

According to Halstrom (1930-1938) there are two principal types of enzyme constitution: enzyme formed by microorganisms irrespective of substrate and adaptation enzymes which result from chemical stimulation. The capacity to form adaptation enzymes is transmitted from strain to strain but may disappear if the composition of the culture medium is altered. According to Rhodes (1941) mutation could bring about stable modifications in the formation of enzymes. From this it would seem that there are two causes of variation in fermentation capacity: adaptation and mutation.

Rhodes carried out his experiments with *Saccharomyces*. In medical mycology as hitherto practised the stability of enzymes may be accepted for the determination of *Candida* species provided that the conditions are



indicated above namely purity of the strains and purity of the sugars are scrupulously respected. George and Plunkett (1949) investigating ten strain of *Candida albicans* kept for 3 to 4 years in the laboratory noted morphological modifications in six of them but not one showed the slightest alteration in the fermentation characters.

## A THE MONILIASES

### Definition

The name moniliasis is given to acute sub acute or chronic infections caused by yeasts belonging to the genus *Candida* and chiefly to the species *Candida albicans*. The skin and the mucosa are most frequently involved.

The term monilia is used in current publications and should be retained. As Skinner has noted (194 ) it would be regrettable if modifications in the systematics of the genus in question should once more determine a change in the nomenclature. The older nomenclature is of two kinds either it is derived from the taxonomic names of the causal agent and one thus refers to oidioid torulosis, cryptococcosis, mycetorulous saccaromycosis or it involves dermatological terms of a primarily topographical nature e.g. thrush, perithe onychia, paronychia, vulvovaginitis. These terms are usually corrected by the addition of the name of the pathogen responsible: onychia à *Monilia albicans* etc.

### Historical

In 1830 Langenbeck recognized the presence of fungi in thrush. Almost simultaneously (Ruby (184 ) who had studied this disease for more than a year called the fungus of thrush asphthophyte. Robin (1843) named the pathogen *Oidium albicans*. The term *Oidium* was unfortunate enough for it is applied to the imperfect form of *Erysiphaceae* (ascomycetes, pyrenomyces) and cannot be retained. It may be thought apposite to recall here that Pasteur's first paper on alcoholic fermentation which formed the basis for all subsequent studies on fermentation was published in 1857. In 1858 Quinquaud first changed the name *Oidium albicans* to *Syringospora robini*. Quinquaud having recognized the non validity of the name *Oidium* several workers consider the genus name *Syringospora* to have priority over that of *Candida* which was accepted in 1949 by the Third International Congress of Microbiology. In 1881 Plant named the pathogen *Monilia candida* and in 1890 Zoff held it *Monilia albica*. This last appellation prevailed in the literature up to the work of Berkhout in 1928. *Monilia* cannot however be accepted for it is applied to the imperfect form of *Stromatoloma* (ascomycetes) the lent brown rot of fruit.

Since the beginning of this century interest in monilia is increased a strong stimulus from the work of Castellani (Castellani 1908) who not only described bronchomoniliasis but he was the first to fully the

Accepted by Langenbeck as the first name for the fungus  
[Erysiphaceae] [Fru? fungus]

pathogenic yeasts on a fermentation basis. In 1909 Berkhout there created the genus *Candida* which has since been retained and separated it from many other fungi of similar morphology.

In 1914 Rava and Rabreau in an eminent work established the lemma and drew attention to a product of this group which they called leucon.

In 1931 Benham through original work and an important critical review of the literature showed that a classification based on purely morphological or purely biological considerations was insufficient to distinguish the *Moules* from one another and that most of the strains isolated from pathological materials belonged to the species *C. albicans*. Langeron and Telle in 1932 tried to distinguish between two morphological groups within the genus *Candida* but in 1938 Langeron and Cuerra denounced this basis of separation as inaccurate and produced their work on the fermentation reaction of the yeasts of the genus *Candida*.

The work of Loddie (1914) and of Dodden and Loddie (1915) exerted great influence upon the classification of the anamorphic yeast.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

*Moules* is a relatively frequent mycosis of world wide distribution. Though it is found at all ages in both sexes and without racial distinction certain predisposing factors are recognized. Malnutrition, faours monibans of the mucous membranes, besity that of the fold and diabete and pre nancy probably encourag the development of vul o vaginitis caused by *Candida albicans*. Therapeutic baths, damp dressings, frequent immersion of the hand in water and the handling of fruit re frequently thought to favour the disease. Five cases of endocarditis were reported in drug addicts who regularly subjected themselves to subcutaneous injections. the role of the injection or of the drug is unknown.

### Etiology

*Candida albicans* is normally present in man. Its incidence increases in the intestine with age and may increase considerably in certain pathological or therapeutical condition. Administration of antibiotics in particular seems to increase the number of yeast in the excrement at the same time diminishing that of bacteria.

Todd (1937) whilst searching for *C. albicans* in the mouth and the throat found it in 42 per cent of 50 persons more than 50 years old, in 7.2 per cent of 264 young students and in 20 per cent of 72 adult women. Out of 614 young people he isolated it in 8.7 per cent of 498 males and in 17.7 per cent of 316 females. Of 1,000 persons under observation 140 yielded *C. albicans* and 7 gave non determined yeasts. 93 per cent of these were males and 18 per cent females. In addition this same worker noted agglutination of *C. albicans* by the serum of 22.5 per cent of 1,150 normal persons, 30.4 per cent for women and 15.7 per cent for men.

Castellani observed a certain incidence of bronchomycosis amongst tea tasters in Ceylon. Tornell (1916) blamed the dust from corn threshing

for certain pulmonary alterations attributed to yeast. Nilby and Norden (1949) tried to demonstrate the presence of *C. albicans* in the atmosphere. 600 petri dishes exposed to the air in a town did not give a single colony of the organism in question. The same result was noted for 110 exposures in houses or hospital. However, petri dishes placed on bedside tables of patients with *C. albicans* in their buccal cavity have yielded some colonies of the fungus. Nilby and Norden have also searched unsuccessfully for the organism in dust from the lungs and expect Tornell's hypothesis. In the buccal cavity of healthy men they have found *C. albicans* in 70 per cent of their cases and in 6 per cent of patients with pulmonary disease. Their conclusion is that *C. albicans* is rarely found outside the human body.

Skinner (1947) however, had already emphasized the rarity of the strains isolated outside the human body and he noted from the collection examined by Diddens and Lockler that only two strains came from soil. According to Skinner it is a mistake to regard *C. albicans* as a ubiquitous spread in nature. One would expect the organism to be present on dairy produce and he has on several occasions isolated it from Camembert cheese. Again he has drawn attention to the work of Mraz, Phaff and Vaughn (1941) who isolated it from date and of Mraz and McClean (1940) who isolated it from grape.

*Candida albicans* is thus a yeast which is frequently isolated from man, healthy or otherwise, and also from dairy produce and fruit. It is apparently more frequent in women than in men and it is more frequently isolated from patient with lung trouble than from healthy individuals. It is probably a saprophyte of wide geographical distribution which under particular conditions can become pathogenic.

### Pathogenic Agent

The *Candida* species are yeasts which grow easily at laboratory temperatures upon numerous media and especially upon Sabouraud's 2 per cent glucose medium. Inoculation at a point on agar on which even moist creamy growth appears within 48 hours which develops filament rather quickly into the height of the agar. If inoculation is spread out in streak instead of at a point and especially if the medium is very moist into the agar filament appears on either side of the streak immediately. The aspect of *Candida* colonies are with the typical filamentous form. Inoculation yields a more or less circular colony which is white at the height of its growth. We define a small colony as a diameter of 1 mm. *Candida* is a yeast which is said to grow throughout its life on the quantity of medium sufficient to it and the surface of the liquid. It is often in the culture alone it is sufficient to grow the culture in the petri dishes and Erlenmeyer flasks are unnecessary.

Importance has been attributed to the characteristics of the filament on liquid as well as on solid media. When the filament is long and both it usually produces a surface turbidity and the filamentous form is the

bottom of the tube. As the development in the form of hyphae and their growth often keeps the liquid medium clear they also often produce a consistent ring at the glass/air interface at which important changes are attached. If the ring develops towards the centre it virtually forms a solid which is described as a mat if it descends to the bottom of the tube in small fragments and membranous if it falls with difficulty and its upper portions. As a rule only exceptionally seen in young cultures of *Cratichneumon*. Aerial hyphae form a mucous mat within the fifth day.

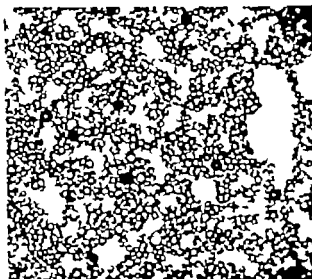


Fig. 43

*Cratichneumon* Chlamydospores Aerial hyphae

A fragment of a young colony mounted in Lugol's solution shows a large number of round (elliptic cells  $2\frac{1}{2} \times 4\frac{1}{2}$  in size many of which are bent to buds. If the colony is slightly killed or if a fragment of agar containing filaments is carefully prepared, one can slide and slip a short segment out the mode of filament formation. In contrast to *Cratichneumon* species an absence. The arrow spaces cannot however be distinguished on the basis of the various morphologies recognized by Langeron and Taber.

The most important morphological feature is undoubtedly the formation of chlamydospores by the *Cratichneumon* species of the *libra* group (*Cratichneumon*, *Cratichneumon*, *Cratichneumon*, *Cratichneumon*). The chlamydospores are large spherical cells  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to  $8\frac{1}{2}$  or more in diameter refringent double contoured and which usually surround the pole of the filament. A xanthophil and acid fast the mature bud within the medium is changed. According to Kligman (1940) the condition in fact our the

development (i) a poor culture medium (ii) reduced oxygen pressure and (iii) a low temperature. Culturing at 37°C clearly inhibit the formation of chlamydospore. Long ago Benham demonstrated the value of using agar with maize flour for their production.

Though they can arise upon undifferentiated hyphae the chlamydospores usually form upon a swollen articulation of the mycelium which was termed a protochlamydospore by Langeron and Cuerra (1939). The protochlamydospore is full of very condensed protoplasm, is acid fast and can itself change into a chlamydospore or empty its contents into another chlamydospore which may arise from it. Protochlamydospores most frequently yield single terminal chlamydospores but bunches of three or four or short chain may develop from them.

It has long been observed that the macroscopic morphology of yeast colonies varies with transplantation. Colonies which are creamy at their first isolation often become membranous after a more or less lengthy period. By analogy with bacteria the expression phase S is given to the creamy phase and phase R to the membranous phase. These dissociation or variation phenomena in *Candida* colonies have given rise to a great deal of research since the time of Fennell's original observations in 1890. Phase S differs from Phase R in the following respects—

1. There is predominance of the yeast phase over the mycelial phase. Whereas the creamy colonies practically only contain yeast cells about 1  $\mu$  in diameter the membranous ones chiefly consist of pseudo mycelium with elements of greater dimension than those of the creamy phase.

In liquid media phase R always forms a veil whilst phase S forms at most a ring and exceptionally a mucous veil.

3. The transition from phase S to phase R reduces and can cause the disappearance of the pathogenicity.

Yet other forms have been distinguished such as form I (kitt form) (MacKinnon 1940) which tends to disappear if it is not frequently transplanted. Langeron and Cuerra (1941) have correlated with these phase variations the appearance of dark and clear sectors in certain yeast colonies, notably of the genus *Candida*, the clear sectors contain small rounded cells and the dark ones very large cells.

It has been observed that in an abundant culture medium which is well aerated and rich in assimilable carbohydrate the S form predominates and tends to maintain it. If Phase R appears with diminishing oxygen if the culture medium is poor (maize agar, potato extract or potato) or if the culture is set up in a liquid medium giving partial anaerobiosis. Acidity favours phase S and alkalinity phase R.

It is important to note that the transformation are not reversible and that it is possible to pass directly from phase R to phase S and that whatever morphological modifications appear in the yeast the fermentative properties remain unaltered.

The genus *Candida* has numerous synonyms of which the following are the most important—

<i>Sporotrichum senex</i> Cruby 184	<i>Monilia Anel</i> 1791 Vuillemin 1911
<i>Oid m Link</i> 1809 and Robin 1833	
<i>Synagospore</i> Quinquaud 1865	<i>Bl stenderson</i> Ota 194
<i>Monilia senex</i> Plant 1893 non senex Boorden	<i>Mycetoblastus</i> Ota 194
<i>Cryptococcus</i> Kutzang 1873 Vuillemin 1901	<i>Mycotoruloides</i> Langeron and Talice 1932
<i>Symonema</i> de Beurmann and Cougetot 1909	<i>Mycocladid</i> Langeron and Talice 1932
<i>Mycotorul</i> Will 1916	<i>Centrachol</i> Langeron and Talice 1932

The most important species from the pathogenic point of view is *C. albicans* (Robin 1833) Berkhout 1933 According to Conant *et al* (1947) this species has 17 synonyms a few of which are—

<i>Oid m albica</i> Robin 1833	<i>Endomyces</i> Bica : Vuillemin 1890
<i>Synagospore</i> Robin : Quinquaud 1865	<i>Monilia praeox</i> Cant Illari and Chalmers 1913
<i>Monilia candida</i> Plant 1893 non Boorden	<i>Monilia pulson</i> Ashford 1917
<i>Monilia albica</i> Zopf 1890	<i>Mycotorul albica</i> : Langeron and Talice 1932

The identification of the various *C. albica* species rest essentially upon study of the fermentation power sugar selectivity and nitrogen assimilation For the *albicans* group one must add the presence of chlamydospores The tables given by Langeron and Conant (1939) are reproduced with slight modification

## FERMENTATION OF SUGAR

(Z) *Monilia* species with the addition of sugar

Species	Age	Cl. case	1 case	case	1 case	case	1 case	case	1 case
ALL	albicans trichia tall tall red								
TRICH	trichia 1. sporidia proliferation								
PERIDIO	peridio trichia								
TRICH	trichia balsam red								+
TRICH	trichia on alcohol id								+
TRICH	trichia 2. sporidia	+							
TRICH	trichia balsam red								

## SUGAR SELECTIVITY

Group	Species	Chlorine	% rose	Maltose	Lactose	R
ALBICA	all leaves trifoliate at threshold trifoliate	+	+	+	-	
		+	+	+	-	
		+	+	+	-	
		+	+	+	-	
TROPICALIS	trifoliate all (trifoliate and all)	+	+	+	-	
		+	+	+	-	
		+	+	+	-	
P. ETIO TROPICALIS	partial trifoliate	+	+	-	+	
		+	+	-	+	
CYLLIN MOYI	partial (trifoliate all)	+	+	+	-	
		+	+	+	-	
ARCTIC	trifoliate partial (trifoliate all)	+	-	-	-	
		+	+	+	-	
BACHTI	trifoliate partial	+	-	+	-	
		+	+	+	-	
ARCTIC	partial (trifoliate all)	+	-	-	-	
		+	+	+	+	

## NITROGEN ASSIMILATION

Group	Species	Peptide	Ammonia	Nitrite	Urea	Ammonia
ALBICA	all leaves trifoliate trifoliate	-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
TROPICALIS	trifoliate partial (trifoliate all)	-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
P. ETIO TROPICALIS	partial trifoliate	-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
CYLLIN MOYI	partial (trifoliate all)	-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
ARCTIC	trifoliate partial (trifoliate all)	-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
BACHTI	trifoliate partial	-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-
ARCTIC	partial (trifoliate all)	-	-	-	-	-
		-	-	-	-	-

The present study is to compare the groups and species and species characteristics.

Based on the biochemical characteristics indicated above, the (and species has a certain morphological characteristics of value in their identification (albica or stellatodea form star shaped) (on a n blood), (Jones and Martin 1918) (albica or truncal) (Vanbrugghe 1919)

produces filament which run over the surface of the agar and the adult colony has truncated per *C. albica* var *trunc* prod. es a mucous veil in liquid med. *C. krusei* forms a thick veil in liquid media. Biological characters may also be considered in conjunction with these. *C. tropicalis* and *C. albica* are the only *Candida* pathogenic for the rabbit. *C. albica* (and its group) *C. tropicalis*, *C. krusei* and *C. guilliermondii* are probably the only ones pathogenic for man and *C. albica* is by far the most frequently encountered.

### Symptomatology

The moniliases are localized or generalized muco-cutaneous infections and much more rarely inolve the viscera.

#### A Muco-cutaneous Moniliases

1 **Cutaneous Lesions** The most frequent form is intertrigo. The lesion takes the form of a reddish patch following vesicle formation. Frequently there is running sore and fissure development at the bottom of a fold. Fitts and Rabeau (1936) consider that the contour of the patch is characteristic: it is finely notched irregular shredded edged with a thin epidermal ridge whitish detached to the extent of about 1 mm. The lesion starts or itches violently. When situated in an inguinal fold it rarely invades the scrotum and the penis but frequently the intergluteal region. In women it often spread to the labia majora.

Other frequent localizations are the infra-mammary folds, the axillae, the umbilicus and the interdigital folds of the fingers and toes. In the hands in 50 per cent of the cases the lesions are limited to the third interdigital space and are never found in the first space.

From the interdigital spaces of the feet the lesions may travel up the back of the foot forming circumscribed erythematous and vesicular patches.

2 **Onychia paronychia** (*C. albica* frequently) sides the perungual fold. Amongst American workmen handling fruit the disease may be regarded almost as occasional. The skin above the ungual fold becomes red stretched tumefied and painful and slight pressure may cause the exudation of drop of pus. Onychia is commonly described if the lesions were due to the presence of *C. albica*; but authors are usually discreet about the exact description of the lesions. Lewis and Hopper (1948) neatly discriminate between the onychia of moniliasis and that caused by dermatophytes. It is at once apparent they write that the cardinal signs of trinea unguium namely crumbling yellow colour and loss of lustre together with lack of paronychia readily distinguish the two conditions. Paut and Rabeau (1936) however claim that the nail becomes opaque and thickened raised by a hyperkeratotic mass and that it is often impossible to differentiate it from a nail attacked by a trichophyton.

We believe that the onychia associated with *C. albica* is the result of trophic troubles caused by the paronychia. The nail does not appear



to be invaded by the yeast. Vanbreughem (1930) has in any case shown that *in vitro* *C. albicans* is incapable of attacking keratin.<sup>1</sup>

**3 Mucocutaneous Lesions.** Perleche which invades the commissure of the mouth and may spread to the cutaneous lining may be regarded as a mucocutaneous form. The whitish blotches which cover the red margins of the lips become progressively erythematous squamous.

Because of the frequency of cutaneous involvement vulvovaginitis may equally be considered in this group. Frequent in pregnant or distal women it is characterized by copious white emission, vulvar pruritis and often by erythematous squamous lesion of the outer vulva and the inner surface of the thighs.

**4 Mucous Lesions.** Vulvovaginitis uncomplicated by cutaneous lesions comes together with thrush into this group. Thrush is a stomatitis which may or may not leave the tongue intact, characterized by a white lustrous coating which adheres to the mucous membrane. It is found especially in individual suffering from malnutrition.

**5 Generalized Lesions.** Spread of a moniliasis to the mucocutaneous lining is exceptional. When it appears all the symptoms already given in a more or less mixed form may be detected. Scalp involvement with folliculitis decalvans appears to be frequent in these cases (cf Craig, Lambelin and Vanbreughem 1930).

Two forms may be distinguished, one of earliest infancy and that of later infancy. The latter which is rarer is also more resistant to treatment. The first form may pass into the second. In adult generalized moniliasis of the skin has been reported following protracted therapeutic baths and moniliasis have been extended by the use of damp dressing.

## B Visceral Moniliasis

The best known is bronchomoniliasis the first information having been provided by Castellani in 1910. It is however very much less frequent than the worker at first thought to be the case. Diagnosis must be given with extreme caution. The sputum mucoid and gelatinous is usually colourless sometimes streaked with blood, the cough is refractory.

Pulmonary moniliasis has also been described of varied and local report and as a generally poor condition. Many of the cases described however are really secondary infections of old tubercular, cystic bronchial dilations and cancerous lung.

Five cases of endocarditis have been reported in drug addicts who injected them intravenously. In four of the cases *C. parapsilosis* was isolated and in the fifth *C. guilliermondii*.

## C Granulomas caused by *Candida albicans*

Moore (1915) and Hauer and Latham (1920) described granulomas produced by *C. albicans*. In Moore's case there was a lesion in the back

<sup>1</sup> The writer has not been able to find any case in which the normal yeast remained unaltered.

of the hand 9 cm by 7.5 cm with a raised margin and a granulated centre. Histopathologic examination revealed rare yeast forms in the tissues. Hauser and Rothman in addition to their actual case report 13 cases in the literature. The lesions are certainly very rare.

### Histopathology

When there are granulomatous lesions yeast cells filamentous giant cell and epithelioid cells are found in the tissues.



F 44

Taken from patient and 1 of 14 printed of 1 mg  
from 1 cm 1

### Treatment

Cutaneous and mucous moniliasis may usually be treated fairly easily. One of the most effective treatments for cutaneous moniliasis is to apply a 2 per cent alcoholic solution of eosin. Whitfield ointment and Castellani's paint may also be used (cf. Dermatophytoses). Onychia and paronychia are treated by bathing with 1/4 000 potassium permanganate or applying in the form of wet dressings followed by 1 per cent gentian violet.

Vulvovaginitis yields easily to borate or bicarbonate injections. Where diabetes is present this naturally has also to be regulated.

Thrush and Perleche respond favourably to application of 10 per cent glycerine borate. The general state of the patient has often to be improved as it is often an important factor in the progression of the disease.

The broncho- and pulmonary moniliasis is treated with potassium

(g) *Biochemical properties* Having obtained a pure culture from an anamycosporous yeast which forms filament the shape of which is round it is permissible to conclude if it forms chlamydospores that a strain of *Candida albicans* has been isolated. In the absence of chlamydospores one cannot be certain that one is not dealing with *C. albicans* because certain strains do not infallibly produce them. For identification of the species fermentation and sugar selectivity as well as the assimilation of nitrogenous materials must be studied.

*Note* The very great frequency with which *C. albicans* may be isolated from the human body especially from sputum indicates the need for the greatest caution in interpreting a relationship of cause and effect



FIG. 4

Clinical test of isolation of monilia from bronchomonia. (1) Clinical test of isolation of monilia from bronchomonia.

between the isolated yeast and the disease in question. When bronchomonia or pulmonary monilia is suspected the diagnosis is only justified if *has been isolated all other possible C. albicans* (or *C. tropicalis*) isolated frequently and abundantly from sputum. Only then may potentiate treatment be resorted to.

#### 4 Experimental Inoculation

The rabbit is the best animal for study of the pathogenicity of the *Candida* species. A 1 ml intravenous injection of a slightly opaque cent emulsion of *C. albicans* kills the rabbit in 4 or 5 days. Lesions in various viscera in only the kidney and brain are readily found.

A subcutaneous injection may cause an abscess in 48 hours.

To a less extent *C. tropicalis* is pathogenic for the rabbit. The other species are not.

### Allergy and the Levurins

Antibodies (precipitins, agglutinins) are readily demonstrated in the serum of healthy individuals or patients. These reactions have only group specificity and are inconclusive from a diagnostic point of view. According to Todd (1937) the agglutinin titre does not usually go beyond 1:160 but Conant *et al.* claim a much higher titre of 1:400.

Pavant and Rabreau (1928) showed that there could appear generally on the occasion of growths rising at the level of initial lesions and mainly at the time of relapse or following a levurin injection, lesions which they called levurids. These almost invariably symmetrical lesions develop on the arms, forearms, sides, buttock, the inner surfaces of the thighs, the face, and may be localized or generalized. They comprise salmon pink, brick red maculous efflorescences at a level at which the skin is more or less infiltrated; they are rarely pruriginous (Pavant and Rabreau 1936).

The levurids have the general characters of eczema (cf. dermatophyte infections); they are sterile and heal by treatment of the initial focus.

Pavant and Rabreau prepared a substance which they called levurin (monilium oxyomyces) by a method similar to that used for trichophytin. Injected intradermally into patient with moniliae, it may produce—

1. A local reaction similar to that which follows trichophytin injection: i.e. immediate reaction of the urticarian type, late reaction of the tuberculinic type.

2. A focal reaction in the form of an eczematiform growth at the margin of paronychia, condyloma.

3. A local reaction on a previously injected with levurin.

On the other hand, a reaction which has died down can be re-activated by a revival of the paronychia focus.

The intradermal reaction to levurin has no specific value: it is a group reaction. Its absence from a moniliasis patient would be abnormal but cases of allergy are recognized. Its presence in a healthy subject does not justify any conclusion.

There are no cross reactions with trichophytin, sporotrichin or tuberculin.

### Moniliae in Animals

Incidentally reviewing the literature while dealing with mycetozoaecous parasites in hedgehog, Talice (1912) drew attention to cases of thrush in the hen (Neuman), the lamb (DeLafond), the cat, the dog, the turkey (Blanchard), in *Circopithicus patas* or *ruber* (Thury 1913) and in the calf and the foal (Brumpt). Catanei (1925) noted Monilia on the tongue of the





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## B TORULOSIS OR CRYPTOCOCCOSIS

### Definition

This disease which has several synonyms such as *Torula meningitis*, yeast meningitis, Busse-Buschke's disease, European blastomycosis is a chronic one with the essential symptomatology of an abscess meningitis accompanied by violent headache and considerable hyperextension of the spinal fluid.

### Historical

The aetiological agent was first isolated by Busse in 1891 from a subperiosteal lesion of the tibia of a woman. The pathogen was in 1910 called *Saccharomyces hominis* by Vanthimin.

In 1894 however Sinfelice isolated the same organism from fruit juices in Italy and called it *Saccharomyces neoformis*. This *neoformis* must be retained whatever the genus to which the organism concerned in torulosis should be assigned.

In 1916 Stoddard and Cutler first isolated the pathogen from the brain and marrow of a man. They called it *Torula histolytica* for they believed that they had an instance of tissue destruction caused by a yeast capsule.

Redaelli in 1911 assigned the pathogen to the genus *Torula*, which according to the work of Lodder it should apparently remain. The name

*Torula* was given by Monod in 1911 and an *Hyphomycetes* (1911) was given by Torrey for an aerial filamentous yeast as it has been called here. It was given the pathogen of torulosis the genus *Cryptococcus*.

of the organism should thus be *Torulopsis neoformans* (Sanfelice 1894) Pedaelli 1931

Todt and Herrmann: 1936 described the formation of a monosporous a-cus and called the yeast *Debaryomyces hansenii*

In 1937 Pedaelli, Ciferri and Cardano found to have confirmed the observations of Todt and Herrmann but regarded the epithet given by their compatriot Sanfelice as preferable so that according to them the agent of torulosis is was *Debaryomyces neoformans*

Most of those who have dealt with torulosis have however been unable to confirm the observations of Todt and Herrmann and of Pedaelli *et al* It is thus pertinent to inquire whether there are several agents of torulosis or only one agent able to reproduce by means of ascospores under circumstances as yet undefined

In Western Europe the first case was described in Holland by Steenker (1934) the second was apparently the Belgian case of Brouwer, Scherer and Thomas (1939) though these workers did not isolate the pathogen and their diagnosis is purely histopathological the third was the French case of Germain and Morvan (1939) followed eight years later by a fourth (or second French case) of Delbecq, Lam, Vack, Crumbach and Normand (1946)

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

Torulosis is a cosmopolitan disease of which there have been about 170 cases described up to the present Though the infection was first described in Europe only 3 French, 1 Dutch and 1 Belgian case have as yet been recognized Most of the instances have emanated from the United States and Australia takes an important place with some thirty cases

No race is particularly prone to torulosis and no predilection for any particular profession has been noted Most cases have been found between the ages of 20 and 60 with men twice as frequently attacked as women

### Etiology

*Torulopsis neoformans* occurs naturally as a saprophyte and indeed Sanfelice in 1894 isolated it from fruit juice It has since been found in wasps' nest, on grass, the bodies of insects, buttermilk and turned milk The strains isolated from sources such as these are not always pathogenic however Rabinowitch experimenting with 40 strains under laboratory conditions found only 8 to be pathogenic though *Torulopsis* isolated as a pathogen from human sources always proved to be pathogenic for mice

The method by which this yeast gains access to man is obviously important It is frequently held to be via the respiratory tract but usually on inadequate evidence Wack and Stevenson (1941) attempted intranasal instillation in mice and were able to produce some rhinitis and in one case pulmonary lesions but no cerebral lesion Yeast cells were however retrieved from the top of the nasal cavity upon the septum and



the turbinate bone (cornet) and in the sinuses. In several cases lesions occurred as far as the cribriform plate but in no case was the brain affected. The mucous membrane of the nose eroded and formed large cystic masses but prior to the appearance of this erosion the infiltration of yeast cells could be found for a long distance below an apparently intact mucous membrane.

Debre Lamy Leblou Nick Crumbach and Normand (194) claimed that in their case the penetration was via the skin. In fact in their patient a small cutaneous tumour situated upon the chin and rich in yeasts appeared whilst his symptomatology was that of Hodgkin's disease and shortly before his death from a *T. neoformans* meningitis.

Experimentally as will be seen all routes of inoculation may terminate in the production of cerebral lesions for the brain and especially the meninges are the essential regions of attraction for these yeasts.

### Pathogenic Agent

The view of most of the classical and modern workers is that *Torulopsis neoformans* is a non filamentous yeast which does not form spores. It reproduces by buds which have the special features of being mostly single and of having a very narrow neck. The cells are perfectly spherical and surrounded by a thick mucilaginous capsule the thickness varying with the strain the age and the culture medium. The cell diameter is 4 to 6  $\mu$  that of the capsule 1 to 2  $\mu$  in culture.

In tissue the cell varies considerably in form and diameter some cells are 10 to 15  $\mu$  and others 10 to 15  $\mu$ . They are usually round but some of them are ovoid whilst others as Wade and Stevenson (1941) have expressed it resemble a deflated rubber ball half of which has sunk into the other.

Even when cultured on agar slides no filamentation appears.

*Torulopsis neoformans* is easily cultured on all the usual media and a very abundant growth can be obtained on glucose agar within 48 hours at laboratory temperature. On this medium the colonies are moist shining viscid whitish at first then slightly brownish. On a blood medium they have a dry appearance. They grow well on Bantlin where they develop flakes at the bottom of the tube. In 1 per cent glucose broth they develop fecally at the bottom of the tube without disturbing the medium. In a medium which has ethyl alcohol as the only source of carbohydrate they develop moderately.

*Torulopsis neoformans* does not ferment sugars but it seems likely that several of them in acidifying the medium. It plus malt sucrose but not galactose or lactose.

By Beijerinck's auxanographic method it can be seen that it utilizes glucose fructose mannose galactose sucrose malt and lactose ammonium sulphate asparagine uric peptone but not putrescine nitrate.

Todd and Herrmann (1941) first described a sexual cycle for *Torulopsis neoformans* and this was confirmed by Edwards (1942) and (1943) and

(1937) According to these workers *T. neoformans* on a maltose or glucose Sabouraud medium reproduces by budding for five or six weeks but as soon as the medium dries up two types of cell appear having thin and thick walls respectively. Both of these cell types can bud but if they are transferred to van Tieghem cells in broth the thin walled cells put out a tube towards those with thick walls. The latter produce only slight protrusions which join the tubes from the thin walled cells the contents of which empty completely into the thick walled cells.

After this fusion the central mass which Todd and Herrmann call the spheroid surround it is with two membranes the outer one of which is undoubtedly the thick wall of the mother cell. The spheroid is then ejected into the medium and begins to bud.

Todd and Herrmann reserve the name *Cryptococcus homi* for the non sexual phase and call the sexual phase of the pathogen *Debaryomyces homi*. Redaelli, Ciferri and Ciordano apply the generic name *Debaryomyces* but the specific name *neoformans* so that in their view the organism becomes *Debaryomyces neoformans*.

Lodder and de Vries (1947) noted that if these facts are confirmed a mode of ascospore formation is involved which is completely different from that encountered in the other ascosporous yeast.

A number of research workers have directed their attention to the nature of the capsule of *Torulopsis neoformans*. Klugman (1947) showed that the capsule is essentially composed of polysaccharides but he was unable to produce in the rabbit either agglutinins precipitins or antibodies producing complement fixation either by injecting the whole cell the cell deprived of its capsule or the capsule alone. The essential features of Klugman's technique for obtaining the capsular substance are as follows.

An emulsion in distilled water from a two week old culture grown on potato agar with dextrose is centrifuged and run into 500 ml flasks. The centrifugation is repeated four times taking up the residue each time with distilled water. The last residue is heated for 25 minutes at 55°C in 0.4% hydrochloric acid. This kills the yeast cells and dislodges their capsule. The same result can be obtained by warming the emulsion for 12 hours at 55°C. The decapsulated cells are removed on the centrifuge and the supernatant liquid neutralized with soda. This is followed by the addition of 10 per cent by weight of sodium acetate and 3 volumes of ethyl alcohol which produces an abundant white precipitate. After refrigeration overnight the solution is centrifuged and the residue taken up in distilled water. An opalescent solution is formed which is precipitated by 3 volumes of ethyl alcohol and 10 per cent sodium acetate. After three reprecipitations a protein free solution is obtained. The barrette Nilou and trichloroacetic acid reactions are negative. Lugol iodine reaction confirms the absence of starch. Fehling and Benedict's test the absence of reducing substances. Molisch reaction is on the other hand strongly positive.

Drouhet and Segretain (1950) claimed that it is possible to dissolve the capsules of *T. neoformans* by submitting these yeast to the action of hyaluronidase.

### Symptomatology

Torulosis is essentially an aseptic meningitis of a chronic evolution characterized by violent and persistent headache. The clinical symptomatology depends upon the localization of the lesions and their importance. Generally the symptoms develop progressively and commence with intermittent frontal headache but the onset may be fulminating as in the case of Deber *et al* (1946-1947) where there was a sudden stroke followed by death 15 days later. Amongst the symptoms noted are dizziness, stiffness of the neck, hemiplegia, paraplegia and frequently deteriorating eyesight. There is either mechanical or visual ptosis, nystagmus, strabismus, papillary stasis and papilloedema. Vomiting is often noted. Troubled sleep and mental disturbance are frequent. Depression, disorientation, apathy, agitation, irritability and delirium have been noted.

In about half the cases the symptoms are localized in the meninges and the encephalon. In a third of the cases however there are pulmonary complications and there are some cases of pulmonary torulosis from the start. These lesions are vague and indefinite and never permit of a specific diagnosis. The symptoms are those of a subfulminant infection of slow development: sputum; rare or absent sometimes blood-streaked. The pulmonary lesions are usually diffuse and bilateral but are sometimes localized at one side in an upper lobe. In the Netherlands case of Steegers (1934) the pulmonary lesion complicated, in any case a torulosis meningitis was fatalized.

Besides the lesions of the nervous system and of the lung, *T. neoformans* may occur in the kidney, spleen, suprarenals, liver, bronchial lymph nodes, subcutaneous tissue, bones and skin. The pathogen has been found in dorso-lumbar and inguinal abscesses and in nasopharyngeal ulcers.

Cill (1934) and Weiss, Perry and Shevsky (1945) reported two cases of infection of the orbit leading in the second case to a mycotic infection of both eyes.

All authorities insist on the frequency of the coincidence of torulosis and Hodgkin's disease or malignant lymphogranulomatosis which reckoned at more than 10 per cent. What reason are there for this coincidence? The explanations offered may be put into three categories: (i) the coexistence is purely coincidental; (ii) involvement of the lymphatic system by Hodgkin's disease facilitates invasion by *T. neoformans*. This conclusion was reached by Deber *et al* (1946-1947) in the case of a case in which the lymphogranulomatosis long preceded the appearance of the torulosis which started with a cutaneous accident. A biopsy which preceded this accident had shown that the lymph nodes were indeed affected with Hodgkin's disease but free from torulosis; (iii) A third

theory (Kligman and Weidman 1949) would have it that certain cases of Hodgkin's disease may be a consequence of torulosis. By injecting capsular extracts of *T. neoformans* these workers were able to produce a reaction of the lymphatic system which however they did not consider to be characteristic of lymphogranulomatosis.

### Histopathology

The whole of the histopathology of torulosis is dominated by the absence of reaction but in the long run the compression itself ends by producing chronic inflammatory reactions of a predominantly lymphocytic type. Wherever infiltration has occurred the pathogen is in evidence surrounded by its enormous capsule and imparting a gelatinous consistency to the invaded tissues. The parasite may or may not be surrounded by lymphocytes and giant cells which possibly engulfed it. In meningitic cases the parasite is to be found in the meninges, the arteries, the perivascular spaces and in the walls of certain arteries outside the internal elastic membrane. The size of the cells is very variable.

### Prognosis

In the great majority of cases prognosis is fatal death occurring from 6 to 12 months after the appearance of the first symptom.

### Treatment

There appears to be no form of treatment which is effective or which even influences the course of the disease in any way. In fact decompressive lumbar puncture seems to be the only therapeutic method capable of relieving the patient. Shapiro *et al* has performed 133 successful punctures on the same patient.

Nary and Pawan (1941) tried out 1:10,000 solutions of acriflavine and injected 4 ml of this each day after having removed 60 ml of the spinal fluid without success. Conant *et al* recommend the use of sulphadiazine which must be administered so as to maintain a level of 8 to 12 mg for each 100 ml of blood for several weeks after the disappearance of all symptoms. It is noteworthy however that Jones and Kline (1945) have found no evidence of inhibition of development *in vitro* with concentrations of 0.01, 0.1 and even 1 per cent sulphadiazine nor even with penicillin (dosage not given). Wourmel *et al* have observed a quite normal development of *T. neoformans* upon Sabouraud medium with 2 per cent glucose and containing 500 units of crystallized penicillin per ml.

Potassium iodide, gentian violet and thymol have also been used without success. Beck and Voyles (1946) tried the action of potassium iodide and sulphadiazine separately or together upon dogs, guinea pigs and rabbit infected with *Torulopsis neoformans*. No therapeutic action could be attributed to these substances.

Kligman and Weidman (1949) investigated the fungistatic activity of

a very large number of products and concluded that not one of them active *in vitro* is active *in vivo*.

### Differential Diagnosis

Torulosis has been confused with tubercular meningitis, cerebral tumour and abscess, lethargic encephalitis, dementia paralytica and lymphocytic choromeningitis.

### Mycological Diagnosis

This involves (i) Search for the presence of yeasts in the tissues, pus and spinal fluid (ii) Culture of the pathogen and (iii) Animal inoculation.

#### 1 Microscopic Examination

Search for *Torulopsis neoformans* is most easily carried out by placing a drop of pus, a fragment of cerebral tissue obtained from trepanation or a residue of spinal fluid into a drop of Indian ink. Examination is carried out either under a cover slip or after drying the ink film. The yeast appears as rounded cells 3 to 4  $\mu$  in diameter, often in the process of budding, surrounded with a capsule which may be enormous and may reach 50 to 60  $\mu$ .

In the spinal fluid care must be taken not to confuse the organism with the blood cells.

#### 2 Culture

Typical colonies can be obtained in 4 to 48 hours upon Sabouraud's medium with glucose. Animal inoculation of the culture permits of reproduction of the human lesion and recovery of the cell with the characteristic large capsules.

#### 3 Experimental Inoculation

The most sensitive and frequently used animals are the mouse, rat and guinea pig. The rabbit is not so suitable. In the hands of Dabry *et al.* (1940-1947) the sheep, dog, monkey (*Macaca*), pigeon and hen remained insensitive.

In our opinion the easiest and quickest method for diagnosis is intracerebral inoculation of the mouse with 0.05 ml of a lightly opaque emulsion of a culture of *T. neoformans* in physiological saline. In our experiment this emulsion contained nearly 3,000 yeast cells per cubic millimetre and its opalescence corresponded with the No. 1 tube of MacFarland's nephelometer.

After having slightly anaesthetized the mouse with a few drops of ether, indicated (0.05 ml), injected with a short needle mounted on a tuberculin syringe into the posterior quadrant of the brain outside the median line. In most cases the mice tolerate this procedure well. Death occurs in 5 to 8 days. In animals which succumb most quickly only cerebral lesions containing for the most part large numbers of cells surrounded with very

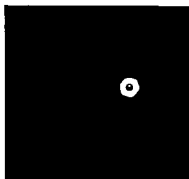


Fig. 48

Tern legs of an On cell  
related to its normal  
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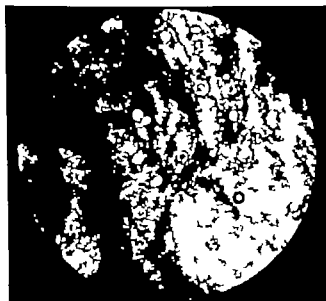


Fig. 49

Tern legs of an Indian ink preys on from fragment of  
mon from

thick capsules will be found. In animals dying towards the seventh or eighth days will be found lesions of the lungs, liver and spleen. A striking feature is the somnolent state of the inoculated animal. They would almost be thought dead from the forty eighth hour after inoculation but if they are handled a little it becomes obvious that they retain considerable reserves of vigour. Further they emerge spontaneously from their lethargic state to feed.

Segretain and Drouhet (1947) carried out subcutaneous, intraperitoneal, intravenous and intracerebral inoculations of mice and reported that death occurred in 6 to 7 days. Intravenous inoculation produced death most rapidly while the subcutaneous method was the slowest. These workers considered that the infection always became generalized and cultures from heart blood were always positive. With subcutaneous inoculation a gelatinous mass appeared at the point of injection. Peritonitis resulted from intraperitoneal inoculation; a covering membrane of *Torulopsis* enveloped the spleen and kidneys.

Intraperitoneal injection kills the guinea pig in 4-5 days. Generalization does not occur but there are lesions of the central nervous system with progressive paralysis of the hind quarters accompanied by tonic clonic contractions before death. In the rabbit intravenous injection does not produce lesions (Segretain and Drouhet 1947; Hligman 1949).

According to Weiss Parry and Shevsky (1949) inoculation of a 0.1 ml emulsion of a 4 hour culture with an opacity corresponding to the No. 1 tube of the MacFarland nephelometer into the anterior chamber of the rabbit eye produces particular kind of lesion. Within 5-7 days there appears congestion of the sclerotic and lateral opacification of the cornea. The lesion leads to keratitis interjunctiva and total blindness (fourteenth to seventeenth day). Rosette shaped masses (as the authors call them) appear in the anterior chamber of the eye consisting of a central cell surrounded by a single row of polymorphous and lymphocytes. These rosettes are distributed on the anterior surface of the iris and the posterior surface of the cornea. This was confirmed by Hligman and Weidman (1949).

The spinal fluid may be clear, disturbed, greyish or gelatinous. It previously may attain 60 cm of water. There is usually but not always an increase in cell number (from 500 to 5000). As a general rule lymphocytes predominate. The colloidal gold curve is variable but often shows a meningitic or syphilitic reaction. The sugar content may be much lowered. The Bordet-Wasserman reaction is negative.

### **Torulosis in Animals**

Brothingham described torulosis in the horse in 1900. The lesion was localized in the lung. In 1944 Weidman and Hatchiff reported as in a leopard the first case recognized from 10000 consecutive autopsies made in the Philadelphia Zoological Park. The first symptoms appeared 5½ years after the acquisition of the animal and the illness persisted for





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## CHAPTER VII

# The Mycetomas

### Definition

The name mycetoma is given to tumour-like masses produced by various fungi and characterized by the development of tumours, masses and granulations. Actinomycosis caused by *Actinomyces visus* already dealt with once more appears in this category. However the term mycetoma is usually applied to mycotic tumours appearing in the foot and known as maduromycosis or Madura foot. Many different agents are responsible for mycetomas and they include genera far removed from one another. The term mycetoma embraces all tumours of fungal origin whatever the systematic position of the organisms concerned: the maduromycoses are mycetomas produced by various fungi apart from those caused by actinomycetes.

Chalmers and Archibald have made a useful distinction between the true mycetomas characterized by the presence of granules and the mycotic tumours devoid of granules which they call para mycetomas. On the other hand they call pseudo mycetomas those tumours having the clinical appearance of mycetomas but which are not caused by fungi.

### Historical

H. V. Carter (1860) coined the term mycetoma to designate lesions of fungal origin within subcutaneous tissue characterized by tumefaction, fetalization and mycotic granulation in the pus. Brumpt (1903) defined mycetomas as follows: mycotic tumours formed by a filiced mycelium and susceptible to eventual elimination through more or less well developed sinuses. Brumpt has established that these tumours could be caused by very different fungi. Pinos (1913) proposed a distinction between actinomycosis caused by *Actinomyces* and *Nocardia* species and the true mycetomas caused by fungi having as their only common characteristic the possession of hyphae wider than those of the Actinomycetes. Chalmers and Archibald (1916-18) put forward the term Maduromycosis to denote the true mycetomas. It is thus evident that the term maduromycosis does not embrace all mycetomas. These writers similarly proposed the terms para and pseudo mycetoma. Bouffard (1919) distinguished three forms of mycetoma on a clinical basis: suppurating (*suppurée*), sclerotic (*scléreuse*) and cystic (*kystique*). Langeron (1936) claimed the mycetomas in two groups: the first includes the actinomycosis or actinomycotic mycetomas whilst the second contains the maduromycosis.

As to the term Madura foot it was according to Carter proposed in 1846 by Colebrook to name foot mycetomas in the region of Madura.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

The Madura foot type of mycetoma has a world wide distribution. It is however found especially in tropical or sub tropical region.

The disease is very much more frequent in male than in female and particularly in persons of mature age.

### Etiology

The mycetoma would appear to be a consequence of wounding followed by subcutaneous inoculation of a saprophytic fungus. The disease is met with precisely in individuals who walk bare footed and are exposed to traumatism. The inadequacy of any simple explanation is however pointed out by Langeron (1936) who wrote "One may well inquire why *in toto* the mycetomas are accidental diseases and are not much more frequent in view of the multiplicity of opportunities of chance inoculation by fungi. Undoubtedly there is an important factor concerned in the genesis of this disease which is still completely elusive."

### Pathogenic Agents

The pathogen of maduromycoses comprise about thirty different species distributed amongst ten genera. The list which follows is probably incomplete. It differs from those found in other work chiefly in two ways.

- (i) The actinomycetes isolated from cases of maduromycoses seem only to be represented by non sporulating aerobic species which must be assigned to the genus *Nocardia*. *Nocardia israeli* in particular has not appeared to have been isolated from Madura foot. On the other hand *Nocardia asteroides* seems to be met with only in nocardiosis already defined.
- (ii) The genus *Monosporium* met with in all classification is supposed the known species having already been referred by Fennel to *Illeriobolus* which is the a congeneric form of *Monosporium apiospermum*.

The essential characters of the genera *Maduraella* and *Illeriobolus* are briefly given as well as those of *Illeriobolus boydii* Shear 1911.

### List of Fungi Isolated from Cases of Maduromycoses

#### I. ACTINOMYCETI

##### (Genus *Nocardia*)

1. *Nocardia brasiliensis* (Hirschler) C. G. Linn and Chalmers 1911

Several species in which the rich chalky fluid and crystalline firm colonies with it to the culture medium. The cultures emit a earthy odour. The colonies are yellow or orange. The granules formed by this *Nocardia* are white or yellowish.

Syn. *Monosporium brasiliensis* Lander 1912

*Nocardia indica* Chalmers and Christy 1913

*Noctuidia meridiana* (Vincet.) Blanchard 1898

Non acid fast. Colonies glabrous humid soft wrinkled cream coloured. Granules white or yellowish.

Syn. *Streptothrix mediana* Vincent 1894

let name *meridiana* Boyd and Crutchfield 1921

let name *mycetozoa* C. neo 1910

*Discomyces fragilis* n. Parajad Sal 1919

3. *Noctuidia pelletieri* (Laetan) Linos 191

Non acid fast and with a f. blk. development of the colonies which are glabrous acuminate wrinkled and of mucilaginous consistency. Colour pink to red. The granules are red.

Syn. *Micrococcus pelletieri* Laetan 1906

*Noctuidia fricana* Piper and Pullinger 1927

*Noctuidia goni* Froese 1930

4. *Noctuidia paraguayensis* (Almida) Constant 1947

Non acid fast species with smooth soft colonies having a whitish centre with the remainder dark in colour. The granules are black.

Syn. let name *paraguayensis* Almida 1940

## II. ANCOCARPIA

1. Genus *Allescheria*

*Allescheria boylii* Shear 1921

Starting with granules on Sabouraud's agar colonies 6 cm in diameter covered with tufted hyphae of waxy consistency appear in two weeks. The colonies become dryer and greyer upon ageing. The thin walled mycelial hyphae are branched septate 1 to 3  $\mu$  in diameter and often coremiform. The upright conidiophores terminate with a single oval or pyriform uncellular spore measuring 2 to 10.4  $\mu$  by 3.7 to 8.7  $\mu$  and attached by a flat facet.

Enmons (1944) showed that *Allescheria boylii* is the ancoarpus form of *Monosporium apiospermum* Saccardo 1911.

Giffert and Redaelli (1950) have established the complicated synonymy of this fungus which is one of the most frequent causes of maduromycosis in the United States as follows—

1. *Sordosporium apiospermum* Saccard 1913

*Monosporium sclerotiale* Iepere 1914

3. *Monosporium nigricans* Peyer 1914

4. *Monosporium apiospermum* as *sclerotiale* Iepere 1914

5. *Sordosporium* sp. f. Magalhães 1919

6. *Alexisium prosperum* n. Main 1921

7. *Cephalosporium boylii* Shear 1922

8. *Dendrothylas boylii* Shear 1922

- 9 *Glenospora boydii* Pollacci and Nannizzi 1928
- 10 *Indiella americana* Delamare and Catt 1929
- 11 *Scedosporium magalhãesii* Froes 1930
- 12 *Macrosporium magalhãesii* Dodge 193
- 13 *Glenospora viridobrunnea* Redielli and Ciferri 194

B Genus *Aspergillus*

- 1 *Aspergillus bouffardi* Brumpt 1906
- 2 *Aspergillus chevalieri* Mangin 1909

C Genus *Sterigmatocystis*

- Sterigmatocystis nidulans* var *Nicollei* Pinov 1908

D Genus *Penicillium*

- Penicillium mycetomagenum* Mantelli and Negri 191

### III FUNGI IMPERFECTI

A Genus *Phialophora*

- Phialophora jeannelii* (Langeron) Immon 194
- Syn *Torula jeannelii* Langeron

B Genus *Madurella*

This genus is represented by imperfect fungi which produce black granules in human tissue and which at 37°C develop upon Sabouraud's medium colonies which remain sterile. The genus *Madurella* erected by Brumpt in 1903 has as type species *Madurella mycetomi* (Laveran 1902) Brumpt 1903. Microscopic examination of the colonies shows them to be made up of wide hyphae (1 to 10  $\mu$ ) which develop chlamydospores. Neither forms of reproduction have as yet been observed.

- 1 *Madurella mycetomi* (Laveran) Brumpt 1903
- Madurella bovis* Brumpt 1910
- 3 *Madurella toxici* (Nicolle and Imov) Pinov 191
- 4 *Madurella Oswaldi* Patteux and Horta 1919
- 5 *Madurella labriolae* Blum and Brun 1919
- 6 *Madurella ramiroi* Pirajá da Silva 1919
- 7 *Madurella americana* Cammel 1927
- 8 *Madurella sheldae* Cammel 19
- 9 *Madurella rifanum* Calamini 19
- 10 *Madurella Lockmaniana* Hanan and Zurek 1935

C Genus *Indiella*

The fungi belonging to this group have never been cultured. Their descriptions are thus very incomplete and the species described so far are based on granule characters only. The granules are white.

- 1 *Indiella manoni* Brumpt 1908
- Indiella regnieri* Brumpt 1908
- 3 *Indiella brumpti* Pirajá da Silva 19

D. Genus *Ctenospora*

- 1 *Ctenospora tharionum* Chalmers and Archibald 1916
- Ctenospora arizon* Chalmers and Archibald 191
- 2 *Ctenospora clapperi* Montpellier, Cattan and Clapper 1937

F. Genus *Cephalosporium*

- 1 *Cephalosporium recifer* Leao and Lobo 1934
- C. phalosporeum* sp. Carrion 1940
- 2 *C. phalosporeum* sp. nov. Wendman and Hightman 194

Note. Several attempts have been made to modify the systematics of the genera *Madurella* and *Indrella*. The work of Ciferri and Fedalelli (1941) and of de Vello (1947) should particularly be referred to.

These diverse fungi have one feature in common, namely the formation of characteristic granules in the parasitized tissues. These are of definite form and of variable colour. The *Vaccinia* species produce granules of the same microscopic structure as those of *Actinomyces israeli* in the classical actinomycosis, and conform to the description already given. These granules are white, yellowish, pink, red or black. The granules produced by fungi other than *Vaccinia* are usually larger and are composed in the centre of a mass of segmented and branched hyphae which develop chlamydospores. Chlamydospores are often found at the periphery of the granules. Between the hyphae which make up the granule is pigmented amorphous matter which imparts the characteristic colour to the granule. The shape of the granule may be oval, round or vermiculate. Colour of the granule cannot be used to classify the mycetomas. However as a broad generalization, white and yellow granules are produced by *Vaccinia* or *Indrella* species, or by *Allokeria boydii*, while black granules are produced by *M. mellea*, and red ones most frequently arise from *Vaccinia pelletieri*.

## Symptomatology

Most cases of maduroomycosis are localized in the foot, more rarely localizations are found in the hand, leg, forearm and even in the shoulder. Typical Madura foot is a globe foot in which the normal plantar concavity has been replaced by a convex surface. Three features characterize the lesions: tumefaction, fistulization and granules. The first appearance is usually very slow and consists of a little papule or nodule which develops, softens at the base and at length opens to the exterior. The sinuses may be single at first, but they usually continue to multiply and the discharge is oily and contains the characteristic granules. The disease, which in consequence of traumatic injection is at first confined to the subcutaneous tissue, penetrates into all the tissues of the foot, which it transforms into a mass of sclerotic tissue traversed by sinuses and sometimes cavities in which large masses of granules are to be found. Several

years (10 to 15) are usually required for the full development of the characteristic Madura foot. The diseased foot may enlarge to a considerable volume so as to be scarcely recognizable with however little sign of pain the patient walk on a globe of mass which serves as a support. His general condition remains satisfactory until such time as a secondary infection provides a complication.

### Histopathology

Brumpt (1906) and Montpellier and Cattan (1934) give masterly descriptions of Madura foot. According to the latter authors the centre of the primary nodule is occupied by a granule of the parasite which is thus surrounded by a nest of leucocytes the component of which all polymorphonuclear neutrophils some intact others pyknotic are disseminated in a thin fibrous stroma. This leucocyte centre is in contact with a second zone rich in fibroblastic cell and neocapillaries of an inflammatory type the opening of which are nearly filled with the tumefied epithelium. The inner region of this zone abounds in polymorphonuclear cell. Large round or oval elements are also present measuring almost  $40 \mu$  with rather precise contours. Their nuclei have the structural characteristics of epithelioid cell. Often thrown back and depressed at the periphery they are frequently indistinct. However be and trinucleate element may be seen. The acidophilic protoplasm appears to be irregularly spongy it contains up to ten polymorphonuclear element in various stages of lysis. The practically constant occurrence of these macrophages sometimes seen at the periphery of the central leucocyte magna impart a distinctive appearance to sections especially at low and medium magnifications. The fibroblast increase in number in proportion to their distance from the centre the tissue of the stroma at first finely protoplasmic becomes more dense with a fibrillar structure the polymorphonuclear element gives way to mononuclear especially of a plasmocytic type which are very abundant at the periphery. Disseminated eosinophil as well as histocytes are rarely encountered. Pigmented cells which the pigment gives ferric reaction swarm in the second zone apparently matching the fragility of the capillaries. The presence of giant cell is constant a feature of other mycoses has not been observed in this mycotic tumour.

However Brumpt and most other authorities concur in the presence of giant cells to be a constant feature.

### Treatment

If the condition is due to a *Nocardia* infection may commence with penicillin or sulphamides or a combination thereof. These may be ineffective in the case of mycetomas caused by actinomycetes or *F. farcinosa* where an amputation sufficiently extensive to remove the complete radiating of diseased tissue is necessary. Relapses are infrequent.

## Prognosis

This is always bad if not good, since at least so far as the diseased organ is concerned. Indeed so far as present knowledge goes amputation is almost always necessary.

## Differential Diagnosis

Diagnosis of maduromycosis is so obvious that confusion with other diseases is likely only in the early stages. No other disease except syphilis and tuberculosis may present the same clinical picture though no other disease yield the triad of tumefaction, fistulization and granules. Other mycoses (*blastomycosis*, *coccidioidomycosis*) elephantiasis, mycetozoa and *sporotrichosis lymphatica* may but at first recall the picture of maduromycosis.

## Mycological Diagnosis

This consists simply of finding and culturing the granules and is important from the therapeutic as well as the theoretical point of view. The granules are found by the naked eye or by means of a lens then examined fresh or in potash. Very hard granules are softened in warm potash or boiling Eau de Javel. Before inoculation they are rinsed in sterile water.

## Experimental Inoculation

The clinical picture of maduromycosis has never been reproduced from cultural isolates.

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## CHAPTER VIII

### White Piedra

THE WHITE PIEDRAS sometimes called trichosporia or *piedra blanca* are diseases characterized by rather soft whitish or brownish nodules which develop upon the hairs of the moustache or beard more rarely upon the hair of the head or superfluous hair. The disease is cosmopolitan.

The irregular nodosities raise the cuticle of the hair and produce upon its surface a mosaic of vaguely quadrangular elements from 1 to 4  $\mu$  in diameter.

The fungus which causes white piedra is *Trichosporon beigeli* (Lalou) Vuillemin 1902 for which there are several synonyms.

<i>Eleurococcus beigeli</i> Rabenhoeft 1883	<i>Trichosporum ovale</i> Unna 1898
<i>Sclerotium beigelianum</i> Haller 1888	<i>Trichosporum cerebriforme</i> (Hamada) Ota 1928
<i>Zootecia beigeli</i> Flerberth 1887	<i>Trichosporum granulatum</i> (Hamada) Ota 1928
<i>Hyalococcus beigeli</i> Schröter 1884	<i>Trichosporum humilimum</i> (Mazza and Nino 1933)
<i>Chlamydosporium beigeli</i> Trevisan 1889	<i>Piedra columbiana</i> Dodge 1897
<i>Trichosporum oroides</i> Behrend 1890	<i>Trichosporum minor</i> Laila 1940
<i>Trichosporum giganteum</i> Behrend 1890	

Cream coloured colonies of *Trichosporon beigeli* grow easily upon Sabouraud's medium and have a membranous and folded appearance. Microscopical examination shows numerous filamentous arthrospores in which they resemble *Cedrickia* colonies and also appressoria which are not found in *Cedrickia* colonies.

Nodules of white piedra may be distinguished by their colour from those of black piedra by their consistency being softer and by the absence of ascopores in the knotted regions of the mycelium.

The best treatment would appear to be to shave off the moustache beard or if this drastic procedure is inconvenient to apply dilute (1:1000) lotions twice daily.

Although white piedra have been known much longer than black piedra from which they have been clearly distinguished only since 1911 the impression is that the former are much less well known than the latter and that there is need for purification of the synonyms of the various species hitherto described. The rarity of the disease and its lack

of importance in human pathology tend to obscure studies of a primarily theoretical nature upon the causative agent.

Pedaell and Ciferri (1941) have studied various fresh strains of *Trichosporon* and regard this genus as having affinities with the asporogenous yeasts taking its place with the subfamily *Trichosporonoidae* (Nannfeldt) Ciferri and Pedaell 1930. Diddens and Lodder (1941) regard the *Trichosporon* as an anamorphous yeast-like fungi which with the *Candida* and *Brethomyces* species comprise the subfamily *Mycotoruloidae* characterized by the formation of a pseudomycelium. The subfamily *Torulopseudoidae* in which no pseudomycelium is formed constitutes with the *Mycotoruloidae* the family *Torulopseudaceae*. Langeron (1st edition of the *Precis de Mycologie* p. 144) criticizes these authors for having taken as their type *T. cutaneum* which is a common saprophyte and not pathogenic *Trichosporon*.

Redaelli and Ciferri (loc. cit.) give a list of nine pathogenic species of *Trichosporon* for whose pathogenicity we have little respect as follows—

- 1 *Trichosporon asfar* (Nann. and Vainna) Cif. and Ped.  
*Trichosporon beigei* (Rabenhorst) Vanlennin
- 2 *Trichosporon Lucketti* Ped. and Cif.
- 4 *Trichosporon cutaneum* (de Beurman and Cougerot) Ota  
= *Hymenosporea coremiformis* Moore  
= *Trichosporon ringorum*

*Trichosporon giganteum* Behrend

- 6 *Trichosporon proteolyticum* Negroni and De Vill. Lastra
- 7 *Trichosporon Balzeri* Ota
- 8 *Trichosporon granulorum* Ota
- 9 *Trichosporon affinale* Cif. Crov. and Brun.

Langeron's words (1st Ed. of the *Precis* p. 546) provide an opposite conclusion. Finally the white pedras are produced by a group of arthrospore fungi equipped with complicated apparatuses comprising species very close to one another and perhaps identical differing particularly in their geographical distribution. Perhaps there is only one *Trichosporon* for white pedra?

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## CHAPTER XIV

### *Black Piedra*

THIS INFLECTION characterized by hard black nodules along the length of the hair is somewhat common in South America and has been recorded from Java and Cochun China. The fungus which causes it is *Piedraia hortai*.

The nodules may or may not be visible to the naked eye but when the hair is combed they produce a gritty sensation. Several species of fungus have been held responsible for the infection but it seems likely that it is due to a single species namely *Piedraia hortai* (Brumpt) Fonseca and Liao 1938. If infected hairs are examined in potash the nodules are seen to be below the cuticle and formed from thick mycelial filament with brownish or blackish walls reduced to arthrospores. Among these filaments are found fusiform ascospores with a filament terminating each pole. The structure of the mycelial filaments compares with that which Arnaud named a *costroma*. The asci are apparently formed from one cell of the *ascostroma* which becomes oval or pyriform. The mechanism of liberation of the ascospores from the ascus is not yet known precisely but it is preceded by a gelatinization of the cell surrounding the ascus.

Inoculation of Sabouraud's agar with isolated ascospores or with nodules produces a black acuminatoid-flocculent colony composed of thick mycelial filament with short cell and many chlamydospores among which asci and ascospores may sometimes be seen.

The following are synonym of *Piedraia hortai*.

<i>Trichosporum hortai</i> Brumpt 1913	<i>Piedraia rosei</i> de la Brumpt and Lançon 1934
<i>Trichosporum paraguayensis</i> Delamaré and Catti 1928	<i>Piedraia rosea</i> de la Brumpt 1934
<i>Piedraia armentosa</i> Pereira 1930	<i>Piedraia jamaica</i> Breda and Verhulst 1938

Diagnostic differentiation from *trichomyces* or *trichophyton* may. Treatment consist of rubbing twice daily with 1% (V/V) salicylic or the hair may be shaved off.

Based on his work on Arnaud's thesis (1918) Lançon (1934) suggested how (1939) that *Piedraia* an Ascomycete fungus belongs to the family *Microthyriaceae* order *Microthyriales* and near to the family *Microthyriaceae*. The *Ascomycetes* described by Arnaud from a group of parasites adapted to superficial parasitism. They require a very humid

climate for their development and are only found in regions with high rainfall of a metre or more per year. Langeron who with Brumpt described *Piedraia rosea velox* (1934) as having 4 spored aeci and equat ascospores finally believed (see 1st edition of *Précis de Mycologie* p. 547) that this was a borderline case of *P. horta* very closely related to this species and differing only in the form of the pedraie nodules, the number of ascospores per aecium and the length of the polar filaments.

The fundamental work on black piedra is that of Parreiras Horta (1911) which Brumpt acknowledged by depicting *Trichosporium horta* (1913) which ultimately became *Piedraia horta* (O da Fonseca and A. E. de Lee, 1928).

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## CHAPTER XIV

### *Black Piedra*

THIS INFECTION characterized by hard black nodules along the length of the hair is somewhat common in South America and has been recorded from Java and Cochin China. The fungus which causes it is *Piedraia hortai*.

The nodules may or may not be visible to the naked eye but when the hair is combed they produce a gritty sensation. Several species of fungus have been held responsible for the infection but it seems likely that it is due to a single species namely *Piedraia hortai* (Brumpt) Fawcett and Leão 1928. If infected hairs are examined in potash the nodules are seen to be below the cuticle and formed from thick mycelial filaments with brownish or blackish walls reduced to arthrospores. Amongst these filaments are found fusiform ascospores with a filament terminating each pole. The structure of the mycelial filament compares with that which Arnaud named *ascostroma*. The asci are apparently formed from one cell of the *ascostroma* which becomes ovoid or pyriform. The mechanism of liberation of the ascospores from the ascus is not yet known precisely but it is preceded by a gelatinization of the cell surrounding the ascus.

Inoculation of Sabouraud's agar with isolated ascospores or with nodules produces a black acuminate folded glabrous colony composed of thick mycelial filaments with short cells and many clear marks pores among which asci and ascospores may sometimes be seen.

The following are synonyms of *Piedraia hortai*:

<i>Trichosporum hortai</i> Brumpt 1913	<i>Piedraia reuteri</i> Brumpt and Langeron 1934
<i>Trichosporum paraguayensis</i> Dalman and Catti 1925	<i>Piedraia surinamensis</i> De Lee 1935
<i>Piedraia armentosa</i> Iereira 1930	<i>Piedraia jirassensis</i> Borchjans and Verhulst 1935

Diagnosis: differentiation from trichomycosis or trichosporosis easy. Treatment consists of rubbing twice daily with 1% KOH. Plucking or the hair may be helpful.

Based on his work on Arnaud's thesis (1914) Langeron attempted to show (1929) that *Piedraia* is an Ascomycete & not belonging to the old *Pyrenomyces* order Microthytriales and near to the family Microthytriaceae. The Ascomycetes described by Arnaud form a group of parasites adapted to superficial parasitism. They require a very humid

climate for their development and are only found in regions with high rainfall of 1 metre or more per year. Langeron who with Brumpt described *Piedraia rosea* *nolani* (1934) as having 4 spored asci and asexual ascospores finally believed (see 1st edition of *Précis de Mycologie* p. 547) that this was a borderline case of *P. horta* very closely related to this species and differing only in the form of the pedraie nodules, the number of ascospores per ascus and the length of the polar filaments.

The fundamental work on black pedra is that of Parreira Horta (1911) which Brumpt acknowledged by deleting *Trichosporium horta* (1919) which ultimately became *Piedraia horta* (O da Fonseca and A. F. de Lencastre 1934).

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## CHAPTER VI

# Pityriasis Versicolor

PTYRIASIS VERSICOLOR is a cutaneous infection characterized by irregular scaly spot—fawn to brownish in colour and spreading over the trunk. On examining the scales a large variety of mycelial element mixed with rounded forms are found the element have been named *U. hi. furf* (Robin) Bullon 1889 and are believed to be the cause of the infection.

Pityriasis versicolor has a number of synonym—tinea versicolor, a brownish paraffin of leucoderm, pityriasis versicolor tropica, tinea flava, tinea nigra, body pityria etc. The disease has a world wide distribution and exhibits a preference for young adult but also attacks the very young and the very old. In temperate climates it is usually confined to the trunk and facial lesions are exceptional. In tropical climates facial localization is very common (Vanbreuseghem 1940). The infection may also attack the limbs, the neck and the scalp.

The spots of pityriasis versicolor are of varied and variable colour—sometimes darker, sometime lighter than the surrounding skin. It is likely that the latter condition is due to protection of the skin from the sun by the scale. The outline of the spot is irregular, large or small and sometime minute. The scales are fine and scurfy. On examination in chloral hyetophenol which is preferable to caustic potash as a clearing agent rounded element are seen of diameter 1 to  $4\mu$  after budding arranged in clusters and mixed with mycelial fragment 3 to  $4\mu$  wide and 1 to  $40\mu$  long sometimes branched. If the scales are stained before examination and not mounted in chloral hyetophenol the mycelium is seen to be a much branched system which is considerably broken up into fragments upon the addition of chloral hyetophenol or caustic potash.

Histological sections show that the filament and spores are in the superficial epidermal cell and that here and there they penetrate lightly into the dermis.

The causal agent of pityriasis versicolor has been named *U. hi. furf* (Robin) Bullon 1889. In the literature the following synonym are still found e.g. *Microsporum furf* (Robin 1889), *Malassezia* (Castellani 1908), *Malassezia tropica* (Castellani 1919). But the name only covers a morphological entity—the picture presented by the scales is always the same whether in a tropical or a European case (cf Lejone). It does not represent a biological entity because it is not possible to culture the agent of pityriasis versicolor when culture become possible several species may well be found and as in the case of microsporia in

hair the complex clusters of spores and filaments may represent several botanically different species. A number of attempts to culture *Malassezia furfur* have failed. However some workers, namely Iannj (1937) and Moore (1941) claim to have obtained cultures and the latter named was able to inoculate an animal. Vanbreuseghem (1930) and Lejeune (1931) have



FIG. 44

*Malassezia furfur*. Small patches were raised on the surface of agar.

made repeated attempts on a large scale. Vanbreuseghem tried unsuccessfully with the following media: Sabouraud medium, plain agar, Loewenstein medium, blood agar, Loeffler medium, Sabouraud medium with the addition of a fine layer of butter and direct inoculation of hairs *in vitro*. Lejeune has had no greater success. He repeated Moore's attempts and also tried the following media: Moore medium plus penicillin, Buller medium, various media in an atmosphere of 10 per cent or 20 per cent CO<sub>2</sub>, media enriched with urea and others with vitamin B respectively.

On account of the failures it is impossible to speculate on the systematic position of the usual agent of pityriasis versicolor. Microscopical examination gives little indication of its position in the mycetozoa.



a true one or a pseudo mycelium? What is the relationship between the mycelium and spore clusters? Different views rest on hypotheses rather than fact.

Vanbreuseghem (1930) turned his attention to the arrangement of the spores *en grappes*. With few exceptions the spores remain in aggregates and this undoubtedly indicates a particular form of growth which ensures that they adhere closely (myxospores) and probably indicates that they are in a common envelope or cell. Lejeune believes that this is not so in all cases because the elements of pityria versicolor develop between the cells and do not penetrate.

Diagnosis of pityria versicolor is easily by examining the scale of the patient under a Wood light when certain elements not visible with ordinary light become apparent. Other diseases with which it might be confused are vitiligo, erythrasma, vitiligo, lichen planus, pityriasis rosea and seborrhoeic dermatitis.

Treatment consists in the application of abrasive 1 per cent alcohol iodine, 1 per cent alkylated alcohol or Whitfield's ointment applied after a hot bath. Recurrence of the disease is frequent no doubt because the apparent cure is rapid and a few small spots are often left.

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## CHAPTER XVI

# Rhinosporidiosis

RHINOSPORIDIOSIS is a disease characterized by polypous masses formed on the mucous membranes more rarely on the skin and it is probably a mycosis. The causal agent has never been obtained in culture but has been named *Rhinosporidium seberi* (Wernicke) Seeber 1912. According to de Mello (1949) the number of published cases in human beings totals 44, distributed throughout the world as follows: Africa 1, N. America 18, S. America 34, Asia 377 (of which 108 are from Ceylon and 233 from India), Europe (Italy) 1, Philippines 1. Of the cases from Asia (which constitute 85.3 per cent of the total) 5.7 per cent were diagnosed in India and 4.4 per cent in Ceylon. According to de Mello the number of cases in animals is 70 of which 3 are from S. Africa, 11 from S. America and 56 from India. Thus rhinosporidiosis is primarily an Asiatic disease. Conant *et al.* (1947) reported the occurrence of rhinosporidiosis in Scotland and England but the case reported by Ashworth to which they no doubt referred was of an Indian student at Edinburgh.

The disease affects young adult males. In India it is especially noticeable among those employed in lifting sand and gravel from river beds. It is possible that rhinosporidiosis is an infection of fish which will accidentally attack man and domestic animals. In an infected frog (*Hyla rubra*) Carini (1940) described *Dermosporidium hyalinum* a parasite resembling *Rhinosporidium seberi*.

The parasite described by Seeber in 1900 has the following synonyms—

<i>Coccidioides</i> sp. Wernicke 1900	<i>Rhinosporidium</i> sp. years Allen and Dave 1930
<i>Coccidium seberi</i> Wernicke 1900	
<i>Rhinosporidium</i> sp. 1 analysis Minchin and Fantham 190	<i>Rhinosporidium</i> sp. 2 analysis Aben Aihar 1944
<i>Rhinosporidium</i> sp. ex Zschokke 1913	and probably <i>Dermosporidium hyalinum</i> Carini 1940

It must be realized that the singularity of the causal agent of rhinosporidiosis based as it is solely on morphological consideration is not as conclusive as it would be if the parasite could be cultured. The phenomenon of convergence which is so common in parasitic fungi precludes the conclusive demarcation of a species on unique morphological features alone. Proof that this is so is given by the fumigoid forms which appear in the tissues after parasitization by several species of *Phialophora* responsible for chromoblastomycosis and also by the better known

example of the dermatophytes which have a great number of species but apparently only one morphological parasite with little variation.

All attempts to culture *R. seberi* and to inoculate man or animal have failed.

It has been stated that rhinopodiosis is characterized by polypoid masses—these may be sessile or pedunculated and in 50 per cent of the cases are developed on the nasal mucosa. The conjunctiva of the eye is also frequently infected. Polyps have also been recorded on the pharynx, larynx, urethra, vagina, sometimes on the skin and in one case in the brain.

The polyps are red, crumbling masses which bleed easily. On their surface a mark indicating the presence of the parasite can be recognized.

In its youngest stage the parasite is a round corpuscle greater in size than an erythrocyte (7 to 8  $\mu$  diam.) and contains a nucleus and lipid reserve. It has a thin chitinous cell wall. This wall thickens and becomes double owing to the formation of a cellulose membrane and the cell attains a diameter of 30 to 60  $\mu$  when the nucleus divides. The nuclear division is repeated without cleavage of the cytoplasm, such cleavage only taking place when the corpuscle has attained a diameter of 150  $\mu$  and contains about 1000 nuclei. The parasite continues to live until it has attained a diameter of 300 to 350  $\mu$ , then it contracts through a pore in the original cell membrane. The spores are discharged by the sporangium ( ) into the surrounding tissues or the natural world, such as the nasal cavity or the conjunctival cavity, where they enter the throats of neighbouring poringia. But it is preferable to carry out diagnosis by the microscopic examination of fragments of polyps crushed under a cover slip.

The polyps are produced as a reaction of the conjunctiva to animal or vegetable material. Infection by lymphocytes and phagocytes is usually more rarely involved. Polynuclears around the membrane of discharging poringia granules may be developed with giant cells.

Treatment of rhinopodiosis consists of surgical removal preferably followed by ketone irradiation. Various medicaments with bases of trivalent antimony have been applied without success. But antimony compounds (neostiboson) have proved useful in it. Rhinopodiosis in domestic animals produces similar symptoms to those found in man. The disease is known to attack horses, mules and cattle.

The systematic position of *Rhizopodius seberi* and its relation to Ashworth (1933) tested the organism to which it belongs with hybridization. Ashworth (1949) places the parasite among the Myxozoa.

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## CHAPTER XVII

# Sporotrichosis

### Definition

Sporotrichosis is a benign but chronic mycosis attacking the skin and subcutaneous tissues and forming ulcers which extend along the lymphatic ducts. The infection is caused by traumatic injection of *Sporotrichum schenckii*.

### Historical

This may be divided into three very unequal periods during which the principles were discovered leading to our knowledge of this infection. Chronologically the 3 periods are—

1. The American period
2. The French period
3. The South African period

The first was a period of discovery, the second was of a descriptive nature and laid the foundation of our present knowledge, and the third was one of confirmation and integration of concept and of the solving of new problems.

**1. American Period.** In 1898 in the United States Schenck described the first case of sporotrichosis. Two years later Hethcote and Fitch discovered another case and gave the name *Sporotrichum schenckii* to the pathogen previously isolated by Schenck.

**French Period.** This period commenced in 1903 with Dr. Baumann and Ramond's discovery of a case of sporotrichosis. M. Truchot and Ramond named the causal agent *Sporotrichum leucum* in 1904 and considered that it differed from the American sporotrichosis which Dr. Baumann and Cougerot in 1906 had named *Sporotrichum schenckii* (Hethcote and Fitch, 1900).

The initial stimulus to the study of sporotrichosis in France and elsewhere was given by the work of Dr. Baumann and Cougerot and especially by their publication of a very important monograph entitled *Le Sporotrichose* (1911). This noteworthy work emphasized on the one hand the diversity of the fungi responsible for sporotrichosis and on the other the serious nature of certain forms of this mycosis. The ideas just formulated were taken up again much later by Cougerot (1935) and as we think

resulted in misunderstanding of the nature of sporotrichosis in Europe and especially in France where it is a relatively frequent and serious disease and the nature of the same infection in other countries notably North America. It is probable that at the time when De Beurmann and Gougerot wrote a large number of unsuspected cases of sporotrichosis dealt with by mistake for other diseases had imparted a very grave clinical impression. However this does not cover the whole question. We believe at the time of writing that it is wrong to postulate the existence of one sporotrichosis specific to Europe and another confined to America.

3 *South Africa Period* This commenced in 1917 with the work of Iijer and Pullinger who studied an outbreak of sporotrichosis among South African native miners. The period really began however in 1947 with the publication of a symposium entitled *Sporotrichosis: lessons in Mines of the H. Westerland* which reported observations made on 7000 cases of sporotrichosis diagnosed in both natives and Europeans in less than ten years. It did not contribute anything fundamentally new but it confirmed and extended what was already known and suggested that the infection is caused by a fungus that normally lives saprophytically on vegetable matter. It also raised interesting problems such as for example the parasitic cycle within the host tissues.

It must be realized that this conception of the history of sporotrichosis in three periods is purely arbitrary.

### Importance and Geographical Distribution

Sporotrichosis is a relatively rare though cosmopolitan disease. This is found to be especially true when it takes the form of an epidemic. The adult male is apparently most susceptible, no race is immune but contraction of the disease depends on individual resistance. Men of certain occupations are more likely to be infected than others. Small epidemics have been noted amongst florists. The example already mentioned in South Africa shows us a vast epidemic that broke out among miners black and white alike. In France many cases were recorded during the early years according to De Beurmann and Gougerot seven years after the first observation of De Beurmann and Parnood more than 700 cases had been discovered. In actual fact according to our information the disease is rather rare and we have reason to believe that it is because the infection is not well known that recorded cases are few.

### Etiology

The etiology of *S. mycosis* is better known than that of *Sporotrichosis*. *Sporotrichum acherei* lives saprophytically on various plant materials living or dead. If a man or an animal receives a slight wound the organism enters through the skin.

The first important step of this demonstration was made by discovery of Gougerot (communicated by De Beurmann and Gougerot in 1909). He

discovered in the French Alps strain of *Sporotrichum* on the bark of a beech tree the leaves of a horsetail and dry grains of oat. These strains were indistinguishable from those of *S. burmanni*; their pathogenic power at first poor in the rat subsequently increases. Congratge and a diagram (p. 14 *Le Sporotrichose*) of a *Sporotrichum* growing on an oat grain which was as perfectly developed in all microscopic characters as a culture produced in the laboratory. As a result several small epidemics were produced by handling plant and Foerster (1936) was able in 14 cases to infect Harberr by way of its spores. Benham and Heaton (1932) after having isolated non-pathogenic *Sporotrichum* from different flowers tried to infect carnation buds with *Sporotrichum schenckii*. The conclusion that may be drawn from this experiment is doubtful because even if the authors were able to re-isolate *Sporotrichum schenckii* from the decaying carnation bud as a result of the previous infection it does not necessarily follow that the pathogenicity of this fungus had been demonstrated for carnation for as Skinner, Frimmon and Tsuchiya (1948) have pointed out it is generally accepted that *Sporotrichum schenckii* is able to develop on dead or decaying vegetable matter.

According to the South African workers (cf. Symposium) sporotrichosis always followed a slight skin wound. However of 82 cases recorded at Venterpost and at Consolidated Main Reef (411 and 324 cases respectively) only 1 per cent and 40 per cent respectively of the workers recall having been wounded. Nevertheless the workers most frequently attacked are those who are exposed to slight injuries during their work. Furthermore in experiment carried out on volunteers it has been demonstrated that *Sporotrichum schenckii* is capable of infecting the skin other than through an abrasion or when it has been irritated by hot dressings or severe rubbing even though the skin may not actually have been broken. In the mine it is on the sound untreated wall used for props that *S. schenckii* develops. In practice this is the only important source of infection. *S. schenckii* has only once been isolated from the air and never from the ground or from water. The South African authors have also demonstrated that flies (*Musca domestica*) become infected after contact with patient bearing sporotrichosis lesions. They have shown that *S. schenckii* can be isolated from the feet and from the faeces of these flies. Also the fungus is able to live for several days within the body of the fly but it is generally accepted that in practice flies do not play an important part in transmission of sporotrichosis.

#### Pathogenic Agent

The causal agent of sporotrichosis is *Sporotrichum schenckii* (Hethcote and Perkins 1900) *Id. Burmanni* and Congratge 1900. In 1903 Matruchot and Hammond reported the existence of a new species isolated from the first European case by *Id. Burmanni* and Hammond and named *Sporotrichum burmanni*. The distinction into two species is based on the fact that the colonies developed by the parasite isolated by Schenck were white

while those isolated from the French case were black. Davis however (1913-1917) showed that little value could be attributed to a difference of pigmentation or to a difference in capacity to ferment sugars. Most authors agree that there is but one causal agent of sporotrichosis: *S. schenckii*; and this agent exhibits certain variations in pigmentation and fermentative action. There is a considerable number of synonyms:

<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i> Hethcote and Perkins 1900	<i>Sporotrichum caruigenum</i> Langeron 1913
<i>Sporotrichum de Beurmanni</i> Matruch and Raymond 1905	<i>Sporotrichum concoloratum</i> Wolbach Simon and Meyer 1917
<i>Sporotrichum versode</i> Splendore 1909	<i>Sporotrichum pseudum</i> Benedek 1920
<i>Sporotrichum granulosum</i> Brumpt and Langeron 1910	<i>Sporotrichum epizooticum</i> (Brunaud) Achaen 1929
	<i>Rhinocladium schenckii</i> Brumpt 1920

### The Nature of the Parasite in Pus and Tissues

According to classical opinion research on the parasite in the pus or tissues of man remain for the most part non-existent. But even if such research is often of little value and does not constitute a sure diagnostic method it is incorrect to say as some workers do that it is impossible to detect the parasite in the pus by direct examination (Gougerot 1936). De Beurmann and Gougerot were the first to describe the tissue form of the fungus (1906) and Gougerot reconsidered the question in 1909. These tissue forms are described as boat- or cigar-shaped. The organisms are elongated bodies with rounded end about 10 to 30  $\mu$  wide and 3 to 5  $\mu$  long in which the protoplasm is concentrated at the two extremities. These bodies occur only rarely in men but are encountered abundantly in the pus of inoculated animals (rat). They are intracellular in the leucocytes or giant cells thus causing them to become very tightly packed.

A rarer form of *S. schenckii* both in man and animals is an asteroid form first described in 1908 by Splendore who discovered it in an infected woman in Brazil. It was this particular form which Splendore believed to be a new species and which he named *S. asteroides*. Talice (1931) reported the same asteroid form in two infected people in Uruguay. Two more cases were discovered in North America by Moore and Ackerman (1948) and Pinkus and Crekin (1950). Asteroid forms have been seen by De Beurmann and Gougerot, Greco-Harter and Gruyer (1909) in a guinea-pig. Talice described the asteroid forms as follows: Extracellular bodies surrounded by pyocytes irregularly rounded rather small the greatest diameter not exceeding 10  $\mu$ . Its structure is characteristic: in the centre is a round corpuscle (spore) 2  $\mu$  in diameter the contents staining a diffuse blue-violet colour with haematoxylin and having distinct double wall which takes up a deeper violet coloration. The surface is covered with radially arranged protuberances of very variable length (between 2 to 3



and  $\sim$  to  $8\mu$ ). The projections spread in all directions. They seem to have the central body at varying levels and it is these structures which give the spores a teroid or sweet chestnut like appearance. These bodies take up eosin very strongly thus indicating their acidophile nature. Langeron (Tahiti 1933) regarded the teroid form as *simplex granules*.

Splendore has shown by cultural method that these teroid form are capable of reproducing the fungus in its more usual form and that they constitute a stage in the parasitic state of *Sporosichium*.

Until just recently asteroid forms were considered to be rare. However the observation of the South African workers justify a reconsideration of this view. They found asteroid forms in no less than 1 of the 15 colonies which they were working and starting with South African or North American strains reproduced them in animal. Their conception of the parasitic cycle of *S. schenckii* is as follows—

Stage 1—Represented by the boat like form or cigar bodies which resemble spores produced in culture by *S. schenckii*. Both spores and cigar bodies react identically to Gram staining, only slightly.

Stage 2—Certain boat like forms are transformed into cryptococcal element with a spherical form.

Stage 3—Represented by an increase in size of the cryptococci to twice their original dimension.

Stage 4—The periphery of the bodies becomes covered with an eosinophilic coating.

Stage 5—Represented by the asteroid bodies with a central mass—the cryptococcal body—surrounded by delicate radiating eosinophilic projections which are easily destroyed during manipulation.

Asteroid bodies appear to ward the sixth week after the initial natural or experimental inoculation. At this stage the teroid and cryptococci are rare or lacking.

It is difficult to draw satisfactory conclusion. Are the observations of the South African workers due to biological peculiarities in the strains which they have studied? Or have their observations been more critical because they have taken into account the extreme frailty of the strains upon which they worked? We cannot say for certain. Suffice it to say that their description of the asteroid bodies corresponds very closely with that given by Talice and the literature.

No mycelial elements are found in pure culture. Fragment of mycelium injected into tissue experimentally rapidly disappears and only the spores appear to develop into boat form.

### Macroscopic Nature of Cultures

On Sabouraud glucose agar at room temperature (20°C) colonies of *S. schenckii* appear on the third or fifth day after inoculation with spores. Their appearance is absolutely different from that of most of the other pathogenic fungi causing the colonies to be known. They appear

as small smooth white round plate like or moist and somewhat resembling yeast colonies. In certain strains the whit pigmentation persists indefinitely but often after a few days it becomes brownish or black. It will be recalled that it was on the basis of this difference in pigmentation that *S. schenckii* and *S. lecanium* were separated. As they grow older the colonies become more moist and the surface becomes corrugated and often covered with wick like protrusions. The colonies are of an elastic consistency.

Davis about 1913 was able to produce the boat shaped bodies which characterize the tissue form of *S. schenckii* either by culturing, it anaerobically or by including a piece of fresh sterile animal tissue and using blood or serum as the medium. More recently Campbell (1914) obtained the yeast like phase and the boat shaped phase by culturing *S. schenckii* at 37 C under anaerobic conditions on Francis medium (blood agglutinated by glucose and cystine). On this medium colonies appear after 36 to 48 hours like small yellowish bacterial growths consisting of elongatedigar like bodies which reproduce by budding from one of their extremities. These bodies show a Gram positive reaction. This form last for long time if the culture on Francis medium is kept at 37 C. If the igar like bodies are kept at 0 on Sabouraud's medium they reproduce the mycelial form. The change from the mycelial to the yeast like phase from cultures maintained for some time in the laboratory requires several transfers.

*S. schenckii* will ferment glucose, lactose, saccharose and maltose but not dextrin, mannitol or dulcitol. Its action on the following substances is variable: accharose, lactose, inulin, starch and glycerine (Marroquin 1947).

### Microscopic Nature of Cultures

It is not proposed to refer again to the yeast like phase described above. The mycelial phase is made up of mycelial filament spores and rarely blastospores. The hyphae have a diameter of something under  $\mu$ ; they are hyaline, multicellular and branched. The spores are borne on branch filaments upon the surface of the medium either terminally or around the articulations of the hyphae. They are borne singly on sterigmata 1 to 2  $\mu$  in length and about 0.5  $\mu$  in width but at the extremities of the hyphae the spores are aggregated to form an oval mass about 1  $\mu$  in diameter. The spores may attain a length of 3 to 4  $\mu$  and a width of 2 to 3  $\mu$ ; they may be brownish but are never black. Once detached from their parent mycelium they reproduce by budding. It is actually extremely difficult to make out the relationship of the spores with the parent mycelium when examining part of a culture teased out on a slide. The best preparations are obtained in practice by culturing the fungus directly on the slide or more simply De Beurmann and Gougerot long ago realized by dropping a coverslip on the surface of the colony. The coverslip is raised at a convenient opportunity and the material adhering to it is flooded and stained.

It is important to remember the impossibility of diagnosis in the vast majority of cases where there is not access to histological method. There is a tendency to reject a diagnosis of mycosis though the histopathological picture is not conclusive in that the pathogen has not actually been seen in the tissues. The simplest method of diagnosis and which gives the best and most constant result is that of culturing the fungus.

### Treatment

*Sporotrichosis* has a unique position amongst therapeutics. It is sensitive to one medication only, namely potassium iodide. Antibiotics such as streptomycin and penicillin have been applied without success.

Courot prescribed 2 g for the first day, 4 g for the third and fourth days then 5 or 6 g per day as the dose to be taken daily before meals.

Conant *et al* gave 10 drops of a saturated solution of potassium iodide three times a day and increased each dose by 5 drops three times a day until it had reached 30 or 40 drops three times a day. The drops are administered before meals and diluted with milk or water. Intravenous injection of 1 g p.d. of sodium iodide may be applied in place of potassium iodide ingestion.

The South African authors who have treated a great number of cases in their country adopt the following method: for the first two days at the hospital the patient receives 2 g (30 grains) of potassium iodide three times a day in a soup-spoonful of water ( $\frac{1}{2}$  ounce). They consider that if the symptoms of iodine poisoning are to appear they will do so during this time. If the symptoms are slight the treatment is continued without interruption. If they are serious the treatment is stopped for 48 hours and then resumed. The size of the dose is generally maintained at the initial level but may be raised until the daily dose totals 120 grains (9 g).

The iodide treatment should be continued for 4 to 6 weeks after apparent recovery. The treatment is very effective.

It is not advisable to increase the lesion because this often leads to long-term ulceration. Spontaneous ulcers can be treated with iodine locally. In certain cases it is an advantage to use an auto or a stock serum on patients who are not sufficiently responsive to iodine.

According to the South African workers a combination of this hormone applied to the inoculation, hastens the effect of a cure. Secondary nodules are not however affected by this treatment.

### Prognosis

It can be said of practically every case that prognosis is good if spontaneous cure and naturally resistant individuals are known. The several forms and certain of the mucous membrane lesions have a particularly favourable prognosis.

### Differential Diagnosis

The localized lymphatic form is difficult to confuse with anything else. However the primary lesion must be distinguished from syphilis.

t. bereulosa imputo eethyma and tularemia. Of other mycoses chromoblastomycosis coenoblastomycosis North and South American blastomycosis and trichophyton granulomas may be confused with sporotrichosis.

### Mycological Diagnosis

Although theoretically there are three methods of mycological diagnosis namely examination of the pus culture and animal inoculation culture remains the most trustworthy and constant method.

#### (a) Examination of Pus

Pus is obtained either from a softened nodule or from the exudate of the primary lesion and is examined for the presence of boat-shaped and asteroid forms. In man the boat-shaped forms had always been considered rare and the asteroid forms exceptional until the observations of the South African workers.

The boat-shaped and asteroid forms can be examined directly on a slide under coverslip. For the boat-shaped forms Area-Lago and Coto (1940) recommended staining by the May-Grunwald-Giemsa procedure. Staining is carried out on smears of pus diluted in 10 to 1 volumes of sterile water. The staining time should not exceed 30 min. By this method the Brazilian workers have been able to recognize not only the boat-shaped forms but also the budding forms.

#### (b) Cultures

The cultures are grown on Sabouraud medium at temperature of 30°C. A few large drops of pus taken from an unopened nodule by a syringe are spread over the agar surface. After 3 to 5 days the characteristic colonies appear. Campbell (1941) was able to produce the boat-shaped forms on Francis medium at 37°C.

To facilitate a rapid diagnosis Cougerot has devised a contrivance for running the pus on a dry glass tube. This method consists in allowing a large drop of pus to run along the wall of the tube in the angle formed between the agar surface and the wall when inoculating the agar. These parasites develop on the glass through which it is easy to see and examine them on the second or third day (Cougerot 1936). For this purpose the tubes are filled with Plastiscine on the stage of a microscope and examined under a powerful eyepiece and a low powered objective.

The South African workers have found that most of the lesions give negative cultures after 400 grains (about 26 g) of potassium iodide have been taken.

#### (c) Experimental Inoculation

The best experimental animal is the male white rat. The pus or an emulsion of the culture is injected intraperitoneally. There is rapid development (in a week) of an orchitis and peritonitis characterized by

little white nodules spread throughout the mucosa and the peritoneum. Examination of the secretion reveals the presence of numerous boat shaped Cram positive intracellular bodies.

Resuming the experimental study of sporotrichosis in the mouse Baker (194 ) showed that in this animal *S. schenckii* causes the development of a disease so chronic that it is usually fatal. In the tissues of the mouse are found vast numbers of boat shaped bodies.

### Serological Diagnosis and Allergic Reactions

1. *Widal and Abram:* Sero diagnosis. About 1909 Widal and Abram applied an agglutination test to the diagnosis of sporotrichosis.

A spore suspension is prepared by removing fragments of a 4 to 1 weeks old culture. The fragments are ground up in a mortar diluted with sterile water and the suspension is then filtered. The filtrate is examined on a slide to ensure that it is rich in spores but contains no mycelial filament. The suspension is agglutinated by serum from patient infected with sporotrichosis for 15 to 60 minutes at dilutions ordinarily of the order of 1/300 to 1/400 but which may go as far as 1/400 and beyond. In fact the carrying out of this procedure is not so simple as may at first appear. It is difficult to obtain a homogeneous spore suspension and many cross reactions have been observed. This method is inferior to diagnosis by culture.

The same may be said of the complement fixation reaction.

2. The following reactions have also been studied and found to lack specificity: the cutaneous reactions (Bruno Bloch) the subcutaneous reactions (Pautrier and Lutembacher) the intra dermal reaction (De Beurmann and Cougerot).

### Spontaneous Sporotrichosis in Animals

Sporotrichosis has been recognized in a large number of animal species including the rat dog cat rabbit horse and mule. Lutz and Spinkson (1907) were the first to describe spontaneous sporotrichosis in the rat. In this animal the lesions are sub cutaneous and articular the paws and tail being most often attacked and the infection here taking the form of tumefactions filled with cheese like pus. Visceral and generalized lesions have also been recorded.

In all the animals affected the tissue form of *S. schenckii* is frequently encountered and in much greater numbers than in man. It is believed that in the rat the disease is transmitted from one animal to another by biting but this requires confirmation. It seems rather unlikely from what we know of the biology of sporotrichosis in human beings.

Treatment of animal as of man involves the application of potassium iodide. Carougeau has demonstrated the great value of this therapeutic method in horse and mules (1909).

3. A transmission of sporotrichosis from animal to man has been recorded (Courau 1904).

### Prophylaxis

The course taken by a sporotrichosis epidemic and the experiences acquired by the South African authors on the subject have given valuable information on the essential facts.

As already stated sporotrichosis usually occurs as isolated cases or more rarely in the form of small epidemics amongst for example florists. In this case after diagnosis therapeutic treatment is begun. No special precaution is taken to prevent transmission to other individuals and as far as is known no case of contagious spread amongst human beings has been described.

This is not the case when sporotrichosis attacks a large number of people and when ideal conditions for its spread are realized. The various epidemics in the South African mines (Witwatersrand) are believed to be rare examples but are so important that they merit special attention. From the admirable series of observations and experiments made by South African specialists it is known that spread of such an epidemic depends on the following factors—

1. A pathogenic agent (*Sporotrichum schenckii*).

A vegetable substratum for the development of this pathogenic agent: wood in the mines.

3. A living organism receptive to the parasite: man.

4. An abrasion or wound.

Each of these factors is considered individually in relation to the hygienic preventive action that may be taken as follows—

#### 1. The Pathogen

Although a large number of other fungi have been isolated it is established that all cases of sporotrichosis cited in the mines of Witwatersrand were caused by the one pathogen *S. schenckii* (based on an identification made by Fennons who called the parasite *S. brasiliensis*). Of 2 000 samples from sporotrichosis victims 1 400 yielded *S. schenckii* in culture.

#### 2. Wood in the Mines

*S. schenckii* in the mines of the Witwatersrand lives saprophytically upon the wooden props. Its development on these props depends on various conditions—

(a) The wood must be of a certain type. Different species of eucalyptus and an acacia widespread in South Africa (*Acacia mellommis*) known as the wattie and various pines are suitable for the development of *S. schenckii*. However the fungus will not grow on the Oregon Pine (*Pinus taeda*).

(b) The wood must not have been treated by chemicals but may have been subjected to different stages of seasoning (e.g. desiccation etc.) without affecting the multiplication of the fungus.

(c) The wood must be healthy. The formation of mould on the wood reduces the development of *S. schenckii* considerably for reasons not yet understood. Among such antagonistic species are included *Fomes* sp., *Hydnum* sp., *Lentinus lepidus*, *Polyporus rugulans*, *Porus* sp., *P. saporatus* and *Stereum apadicum*. Certain species such as *Coniophora cerebella* have no antagonistic action. The destruction of *S. schenckii* by these fungi takes several months but is usually almost complete after 4 months. It should be noted that if rotten wood is sterilized it may become infected by *S. schenckii* but the development of the pathogen under such conditions is poor.

*S. schenckii* grows most easily on white wood from the heart of the tree. Its penetration into the wood never exceed 1 to 2 mm but in transverse section the organism may be found at certain points up to 2 cm deep, thus though it has no great power of penetration it is able to gain ingress via any fissures which it may encounter.

The nature of the fungus varies according to the species of host wood but the colour of the colonies is usually grey ochre or blackish. On some species of wood the colonies are viscous on others they are milk milk if lime being damp and greyish. When the wood is decayed the colonies have a wooly appearance. It is impossible to recognize with certainty colonies of *S. schenckii* by macroscopic observation alone. The South African authors have said that the pores of this fungus are triangular the size of the triangle varying in length from 6 to 12  $\mu$ . By subjecting scrapings from a putrid wood to microscopic examination it is easy to recognize the triangular spores which the South African authors have a diagnostic value. If the strain isolated from the proper medium in fact the pathogen was identified by the inoculation of guinea pigs.

### 3. Man

The numerous cases of pneumonia reported in native and European workers in the mines of the Witwatersrand and the inoculation of guinea pigs has prevailed upon the mine authorities to still the strains of *S. schenckii* developed on the proper African forest immunity has been recorded by inoculation which was not sufficient infection.

### 4. Wounding

Until a few years ago it was found in a limited number of experiments that an almost total immunity to the transmission of fungus infection by the presence of *S. schenckii* in the air. A few new results have shown that all the factors are more or less important in the transmission of the fungus and that the transmission of the fungus in practice two of the factors are not completely necessary and sufficient. Of the other two factors *S. schenckii* is the

wooden props—which would be the most profitable to tackle! The introduction of the fungus into the mines could not be checked because it is not known how it is introduced though it may possibly come from infected individuals. It has indeed been found possible to contaminate wood with human pus. Once the wood is contaminated natural vectors other than man (e.g. water insects) suffice to transmit the fungus from contaminated to new wood. It seems certain on the other hand that it was not the new wood which introduced the fungus into the mine because wood has never been found to be contaminated before it enters the mine. Infestation of the wood by the pathogen can be controlled directly by spraying contaminated wood with fungicides or indirectly by treating the wood with fungicides before it is introduced into the mines or after it has been introduced but is still uncontaminated. Both methods have been successfully employed.

Impregnation of the wood is effected by spraying with a mixture (Yrd Mixture) containing 3 per cent zinc sulphate and 0.3 per cent Tricolith (a product composed of sodium fluoride, dimetaphenol and potassium dichromate).

Spraying with Domicide (containing sodium pentachlorophenyl) and with pentachlorophenol was also effective.

By deciding to use only previously treated wood the South Africans have been able to control epistaxis successfully and quickly.

### Taxonomy

In this chapter the binomial *Sporotrichum achel* has been accepted to designate the pathogenic agent peculiar to sporotrichosis. According to Vuillemin however the genus *Sporotrichum* adopted by Mitrachot for the pathogen discovered by Dr. Beermann and Lamond (1936) does not describe the pathogen of sporotrichosis which should be placed in the genus *Rhizoglyphus*. This view was taken by Brumpt. In 1934 Langeton wrote: "There are indeed two parallel series of *Sporotrichum* one of them is in the Mucedinaceae and in part comprises the genus *Sporotrichum* Link 1909 with diffuse mycelium, no differentiated conidiophores, the conidia being borne directly on the mycelium or more rarely on small sterigmata and in part the genus *Rhizoglyphus* Cord 1837 which differs from the former by the possession of distinct septate conidiophores at the end of which are projecting teeth bearing the conidia. The other series in the Dematiaceae comprises the two genera *Trichosporium* Fries 1819 and *Rhizoglyphus* Sam. et al. and Marchal 1888. *Trichosporium* correspond to *Sporotrichum* with diffuse mycelium, conidia usually sessile and borne irregularly along the filament. *Rhizoglyphus* is homologous with *Phanerochaete* differing in that it has no differentiated conidiophores nevertheless it has the characteristic teeth and the dusky appearance."

It would appear to be difficult to assign the genus *Rhizoglyphus* a paratype such as *S. achel* which is not an authentic member of the





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